
T H E

CRITICAL REVIEW.

For the Month of *April*, 1784.

Flora Londinensis. By William Curtis. Folio. First Forty-eight Numbers, 2s. 6d. each, plain; 5s. coloured. White.

THE splendour, elegance, and accuracy of this volume, are sufficient apologies for its price; but perhaps it will be acknowledged, that the works of natural historians, in general, from the magnificence of their ornaments, have shut the door of science except to the great and affluent. Linnæus painted to the understanding, rather than to the eye:—for obvious reasons, he at first discouraged the assistance of engravings; but, by his language, supplied the defect. It is true that, in this opinion, he was neither uniform nor consistent; and we may allow that he frequently rejected what he was conscious he could not attain. In more modern works, the expence is always an object; and the author confines his reputation, in most instances, because the circulation of his work is limited to those only whose rank and fortune can enable them to taste the luxuries of science. This complaint would have been both useless and superfluous if the evil had been unavoidable, or if it had not sometimes produced other inconveniencies. Where plates are requisite, and we wish to confine them to peculiar plants, or to those parts of vegetables which are with difficulty observed, every attention is necessary, that they be correct and clear. The labour of the drawer, the anxious care of the engraver, and the unremitted vigilance of the author, should be amply rewarded; and, in a scientific view, we can desire no more. In some of the best systems, the price often depends on the colouring; and the artist, in this branch, is frequently found to prefer the beauty of the picture to the fidelity of the representation. We have not seen

VOL. LVII. *April*, 1784.

R

many

many instances of unexceptionable execution in this part of an undertaking.

We do not mean, by these introductory observations, to depreciate the merits of Mr. Curtis, to which we have frequently borne ample testimonies. The present work is distinguished by its beauty, so far as is consistent with its exactness; nor is its price enormous, if we reflect on the numerous plates of which it is composed. If we object, it is to the design of engraving every common ornament of the field, and decorating them with colours not their own. If this *Flora* be intended for an elementary work, to instruct the younger botanist, for which it is well adapted; since the manner of representing the minute parts, teaches the best and most advantageous methods of dissecting each flower: if this was his object, the bulk of the work is, we fear, a formidable objection. To more experienced natural historians, the greater number of the plates convey little information; so that their chief utility will be confined to the inhabitants of other nations. In this respect, he is rivalled by the works of different authors; of nations, whose *Flora* nearly coincides with our own; and particularly by the *Flora Danica*, now publishing under the auspices of the king. Impartiality also obliges us to add, that the colouring is exceptionable from its splendour. The colour of a natural flower is faint and muddy; we should scarcely find the *lychnis flos cuculi*, the *polygonum bistorta*, or many others, from their general appearance in these plates. But, though we fear that some of the circumstances which we have mentioned may prevent Mr. Curtis from receiving all the encouragement which he undoubtedly deserves; yet, as a national work, the efforts of an individual, with whom no consideration is of so much efficacy as to induce him to remit the smallest portion of attention, whose knowledge of his subject is considerable, and accuracy, in general unimpeached, we think that it deserves the highest applause. The botanical observations interspersed, are the result of a very attentive examination, and are generally of importance; the medical ones are judicious, and the miscellaneous entertaining.

The object of Mr. Curtis is, to give the several names of the plant which he delineates, from the best authors. We recognize the names of Linnæus, Haller, C. Bauhine, and Gerard, with peculiar pleasure; and we find also Parkinson, Dillenius, Hudson, Scopoli, Oeder, and many others, which add a considerable value to the work, as the references are particular and exact. When he has collected the necessary synonyms, he gives a particular description of the species; and

and afterwards inserts those remarks which are most material to the history of the plant when it is used in medicine, employed in art, or becomes an object in agriculture. In some instances he arranges the species in a different manner; and has, in a few of these, discovered some permanent and happy specific differences. An instance of this kind we shall select in the genus *polygonum*.

‘ If the opportunity of seeing this plant growing wild had ever occurred to the celebrated Swedish botanist, he would doubtless have considered it as a distinct species; at present he has placed it in the last edition of his works, the *Systema Vegetabilium*, as a variety of the *polygonum Persicaria*, probably misled by dried specimens of the plant: those who trust to such are exceeding liable to deceive both themselves and others, particularly in plants whose parts of fructification (from which it is sometimes necessary to draw specific differences) are very minute—those in the living plants are with difficulty enough distinguished, and in dried specimens not to be investigated.

‘ Whoever has observed the appearance which the *polygonum minus* and *Persicaria* usually put on, must have been struck with the great dissimilarity of the two in their general habits; and if they have taken the pains to examine the parts of fructification, they will, I am persuaded, be convinced that both Mr. Ray and Hudson are justifiable in making them distinct species.

‘ It differs from the *polygonum Persicaria* in its size, growth of its stalk, shape of its leaves, form of its spikes, and division of its pistillum. In height it seldom exceeds a foot, whereas the *Persicaria* often occurs a yard high; the stalk of this species creeps at bottom, in the *Persicaria* it never does: it is true in the *Persicaria*, and most of the *polygonums*, a number of little roots push themselves out at the joints, which are next the ground; but in this species the stalk at bottom is absolutely procumbent, whilst in the *Persicaria* it is always upright; the leaves are much narrower, approaching rather to linear than lanceolate, and on the upper surface have much less appearance of veins, than in the *Persicaria*; the spikes, instead of being oval, or nearly round and upright, as in the *Persicaria*, are slender and a little drooping: the pistillum, which is a part of very great consequence in determining many of the species and varieties of this genus, is slightly divided at top only; while that of the *Persicaria* is divided half-way down; hence as I have called that species *semidigynous*, I have called this *submonogynous*.’

We shall complete this subject from the remarks on the *polygonum Persicaria*.

‘ The writer who gives an account of all the known plants in the universe, cannot be supposed to have the opportunity of

being so minute in his enquiries as one who describes the plants of a particular spot, which as they grow, are constantly the objects of his attention.

' We have ventured to alter Linnæus's specific description of this plant, which stands thus :

' *Polygonum floribus hexandris digynis spicis ovato-oblongis, foliis lanceolatis, stipulis ciliatis*, to

' *Polygonum floribus hexandris semidigynis, pedunculis levibus stipulis ciliatis, spicis ovato-oblongis erectis*.

' We have not made this alteration from an idle desire of differing from so great a man, whom we truly respect and revere, but solely to make the distinctions betwixt those plants more obvious, and thereby add our mite to the general stock of botanic knowledge. In specific descriptions, the distinguishing marks should as much as possible be contrasted or opposed to each other ; in these plants this does not seem to have been sufficiently attended to. What we have principally in view by altering the specific description is to distinguish it from the *polygonum Pensylvanicum* and its varieties, of which there are several, and to which the *polygonum Persicaria*, in its general habit is exceeding nearly allied.

' In all the flowers of this species which we have examined, the style has been divided just half way down, hence we have called the flowers *semidigyni* ; had it been divided down to the base they would with propriety have been called *digyni*. In most of the flowers the style is divided into two parts, and the germen is a little convex on each side ; in some of the flowers the style is divided into three, hence those flowers might be called *femitrigyni* ; and when this is the case the germen is always triangular. In the *polygonum Pensylvanicum* the style is divided nearly to the base ; this difference then in the division of the style is of considerable consequence in distinguishing the two species and their varieties from each other.

' The foot-stalks which support the flowers in this species are quite smooth ; in the *polygonum Pensylvanicum* they are beset with a great number of minute glands, which gives them a manifest roughness, and contributes to characterize that species.

' The stipulæ are furnished with long ciliæ or hairs, particularly towards the top of the plant ; in the *polygonum Pensylvanicum* these are wanting. These two plants likewise differ much in the form of their seeds, of which we shall speak more fully in our account of the latter.

' The flowers always grow in upright spikes of an oval shape, more or less round ; by these two characters this species is at once distinguished from the *polygonum hydropiper*, the spikes of which are filiform and pendulous.'

Mr. Curtis has also changed the specific character of the *viola hirta* : he styles it *viola hirta acaulis-foliis, petiolisque hirtis*.

hirsutis, bractæis infra medium pedunculi. It differs from Linnæus' character in mentioning the hairy footstalk, and the situation of the bractææ: but the latter circumstance is doubtful; for, in the progress of fructification, the situation is in some degree changed. It is particularly observable when the flower is fully expanded. We shall beg leave also to insert a remarkable peculiarity of this genus.

'Linnæus in his *Flora Suecica*, n. 789. observes that the flowers which the *viola mirabilis* first produces from the root, are furnished with petals, yet that these for the most part are barren, while those which blow later the same spring, and rise from the stalk, although destitute of petals, produce perfect seed: and Jacquin, in his excellent work the *Flora Austriaca*, where this plant is figured (vol. i. pl. 19.) confirms the truth of Linnæus's observations, and says that the barrenness of those flowers appeared to arise from a deficiency of the stylus. Linnæus, in his valuable treatise above quoted, observes likewise, that the flowers of the *viola montana*, which appear first, are furnished with petals, but that those which are afterwards produced have no petals, yet nevertheless are fertile; and this I find, on repeated examination, to be the case with the *viola odorata* and *hirta*, but more particularly the latter: they differ from the *viola mirabilis* in this respect, that all the flowers which are formed, both with and without petals, produce perfect seed. I was led to this discovery from observing a single plant of the *viola hirta*, to produce about the middle of summer, ten or twelve capsules of ripe seeds, on which I was certain in the spring no more than two or three blossoms had appeared: the next spring I discovered, that besides those perfect blossoms which first spring up, this plant continues for a month or more to throw out new flowers, which are entirely destitute of petals, or have only the rudiments of them, which never appear beyond the calyx; but all the other parts of the fructification are perfect. The capsules in both these species, when they become nearly ripe, lay close to the ground, so that when they burst, the seeds have an easy access into the earth.'

We shall select only another instance of our author's improvements, and we shall select it from an obscure family, the musci, which have been lately elucidated by the concurring labours of several eminent naturalists. There is an obvious distinction which occurs in some of these apparently insignificant plants; and ought to form the great outline which distinguishes the genera, that is, the little balls and stars. In the *mnium hornum* of Linnæus, there are very obvious stellulæ; but, in some other species, the spærophylli, as they are called by Necker, are equally conspicuous. To unite them therefore in the same genus, creates considerable confusion; not to add, that the stellulæ are frequently obscure.

Our author therefore, with the strictest propriety, proposes to include the stellular mosses under the genus *bryum*, and the sphaerical under that of *mnium*. Again, to divide the *bryums* into two families, those which have obvious stellulæ, and those which have either obscure ones or none. The plant in question is consequently called *bryum hormum* in this fasciculus.

Though Mr. Curtis has corrected the errors both of Linnaeus and Hudson in many instances, and established his opinions by incontestible reasons, yet he is fully convinced of their several merits. We were pleased to see his testimony to the character of the Swedish naturalist, since, in this kingdom, it has become fashionable with pretended adepts, to despise his industry, and to neglect his labours.

‘It is too much the fashion now, as well as formerly, for every botanist, as soon as he thinks he has some pretensions to eminence, to set about the arduous task of framing a new system; he may by this means give the public some idea of his self-consequence, and be enrolled in the catalogue of system-makers, but not one jot will he advance the science of botany. It is to be regretted that botanists will not be contented with a system, a proof of whose superiority is the almost general reception it has met with throughout Europe, and unite in their endeavours to render that system more compleat, by giving us an accurate account of the history of those plants not already given, their virtues and uses; this appears to me to be the true method of advancing this delightful science, and making it useful to mankind.

‘When one system of botany is generally followed, as is nearly the case at present, botanists in different kingdoms perfectly understand each others language; but when each adopts a separate one, (which is frequently dictated by pride or caprice) all becomes Babel; and every one who wishes to acquire a knowledge of the plants treated of, must, at considerable expence both of time and labour, acquire first the author’s new-created system-language, a tax which it is hoped every true botanist will unite to oppose.’

From the candour and attention of our author we may expect to see the present system improved. He will not fail to establish it where it concurs with his own observations; and, what is still of more consequence, will not be afraid to meet its imperfections. He has consequently fixed the genus *polytrichum*, by a peculiar and constant mark, the calyptra duplex, and returned the *polytrichum striatum* of Hudson to the genus *bryum*, under which it was originally arranged. The *lysimachia tenella* of Hudson is also restored to the *anagallis*. But as it is impossible to retain all the improvements of our author, we shall not mention those instances in which he

has supported Mr. Hudson's claim to some judicious arrangements, and established it by different observations.

Though we have extended this article so far, for we have been tempted by the united qualities of splendour and accuracy, yet we must not omit the subject of grasses. These are described with their several properties in a very intelligent manner. The *festuca fluitens*, or the *flote fescue* grass, which probably belongs to the genus *poa*, seems highly interesting, as it is a very useful fodder for cattle, and its seeds afford a very nutritious diet for geese. The importance of the subsequent quotation is a sufficient recommendation, and with it we shall conclude our article.

‘ Mr. Kent, in his *Hints to Gentlemen of Landed Property*, lately published, considers this as a most valuable grass, and assures us (p. 34) it is to be improved above all others, and at a less expence, merely by flooding; (p. 54,) he informs us that flooding destroys all weeds, and enriches the land to a very high degree; (p. 56,) he says, as rolling and pressing bring the annual meadow-grass, so flooding immediately begets the *flote fescue*. These assertions of Mr. Kent bespeak neither the philosopher nor the accurately practical farmer; they contain an exaggerated account of improving pasture-land by a particular process, but show a great want of that minute attention which so important a subject required.

‘ From a long residence in Hampshire, we well know that the meadows in that county are considerably improved by flooding them, that is stopping the water when there happens to be an unusual quantity from violent or long continued rains, and by means of trenching or gripes, conveying the surplus water so as to overflow them entirely if possible; but we deny, that by this process all weeds are destroyed, the use of manure superseded, or that *flote fescue* grass is immediately begotten. Although it is a constant practice with the farmers to flood their meadows in the winter, it is not less a constant practice with such as wish to have good crops of grass to manure them with dung or ashes. Flooding can no otherwise destroy weeds than by altering the soil in which they grow, and if it destroys one set of weeds, it must certainly favour the growth of another: if those plants which thrive best in a dry situation are destroyed by the alteration which now takes place in the soil, those which are fond of a moist situation will proportionably flourish. If the *flote fescue* grass was immediately produced by flooding, we should find all those meadows which have undergone this operation to contain nothing but this kind of grass, whereas the richest and best meadows in Hampshire contain scarce a single blade of it: the fact is, this grass will not flourish in meadow land, unless you convert it into a kind of bog or swamp, and I believe few landed gentlemen will

think this an improvement, or thank Mr. Kent for giving them such a hint.

“ Mr. Stillingfleet informs us that Mr. Deane, a very sensible farmer at Ruscombe, in Berkshire, assured him, that a field always lying under water, of about four acres, that was occupied by his father when he was a boy, was covered with a kind of grass that maintained five farm horses, in good heart, from April to the end of harvest, without giving them any other food, and that it yielded more than they could eat. He, at my desire, brought me some of the grass, which proved to be the flote fescue, with a mixture of marsh bent; whether this last contributes much towards furnishing so good pasture for horses I cannot say, they both throw out roots at the joints of the stalks, and therefore likely to grow to a great length. In the index of dubious plants, at the end of Ray's Synopsis, there is mention made of a grass under the name of *gramen caninum supinum longissimum*, growing not far from Salisbury, twenty-four feet long; this must, by its length, be a grass with a creeping stalk: and that there is a grass in Wiltshire, growing in watery meadows, so valuable that an acre of it lets from ten to twelve pounds, I have been informed by several persons. These circumstances incline me to think it must be the flote fescue; but whatsoever grass it be, it certainly must deserve to be enquired after.”

‘ It may not be improper to add, that the account of the extraordinary long grass above mentioned, was taken by Ray from the *Phytographia Britannica*, which mentions the particular spot where it grew, viz, at Mr. Tucker's at Maddington, nine miles from Salisbury; it is also remarked that they fat hogs with it.

‘ As it is now above a century since this enquiry was first made, is it not surprizing that no succeeding botanic writers should have acquired satisfactory information concerning it? I am promised specimens of the roots and seeds. Upon the whole, from the observations which we ourselves have made on this grass, and from what is to be collected from authors, it appears that if it be cultivated to any advantage it must be in such meadows as are naturally very wet and never drained.’

General Synopsis of Birds. By J. Latham. Vol. II. Part I. and II. 4to. 2l. 12s. 6d. coloured. Leigh and Sotheby.

IN our Fifty-fourth Volume, p. 309. we introduced the labours of this attentive and industrious author, and have now received the continuation. The second volume is also divided into two parts, and contains, as was promised, the orders of the *passeres* and *gallinæ* of Linnæus; but, in the present system, which we formerly explained, the pigeon is separated from the *passeres*, and forms the connecting link between the pas-

passerine and gallinaceous orders, under the title of the columbine. In the very numerous and varied order of sparrows, it is of little utility to trace all the changes made by our author, in consequence of attentive examination or new discoveries. These petty plunderers vary in almost every situation; and we scarcely wish for any thing but to guard from their depredations. The more material changes in the gallinæ are, the separation of the grouse and the partridge into distinct genera; the insertion of the psophia and otis of Linnæus, or the trumpeter and bustard from the grallæ; and the formation of a new genus, under the name of tinamou. Linnæus was acquainted with neither of the species which form this genus; and we shall select our author's account of it and the first species, as a specimen of his manner.

GENUS TINAMOU.

- N^o 1. Great T. N^o 3. Variegated T.
2. Cinereous T. 4. Little T.

Bill long, blunt at the end; nostrils placed in the middle. Gape wide.

* Sides of the head, and throat, not well furnished with feathers.

' Tail very short, often hid by the upper coverts.

Hind toe short, and useless in walking; claws hollow beneath.

The manners of the whole genus much like those of the first described.

‘ The female biggest in all the known species.

Le Perdrix de Brésil. *Bris. orn.* i. p. 227 4.

‘ La Grosse Perdrix du Bresil ————— 5.

* Le Magona *Buf. ois.* iv. p. 507. pl. 24.

* Tinamou de Cayenne, *Pl. enl.* 476.

Macucagua *Raii* Syn. p. 53. No 9.—*Will. orn.* p. 163.
pl. 26.

Grosse Perdrix de la Guiane, *Mem. Cay.* vol. ii. p. 269.

* Great Partridge, *Descr. Surin.* ii. p. 188.

Lev. Mus.

* Size of a fowl: the length eighteen inches. Bill one inch and a quarter long, and blunt at the end, with a kind of furrow on each side of the upper mandible, in the middle of which the nostrils are placed; the colour of it black: the top of the head is deep rufous: the general colour of the rest of the body greyish brown, inclining to olive, with a mixture of white on the upper part of the belly and sides, and of greenish on the neck: upper part of the back, wing-coverts, and tail marked with dusky transverse spots, fewest on the last: the

the sides of the head, throat, and fore part of the neck, not well clothed with feathers: the secondary quills have a mixture of rufous; and the greater quills plain ash-colour: the tail is short: the legs yellowish brown; the hind part of them very rough, the scales standing out, and giving the appearance of the bark of the fir-tree.

'This is found in the woods of several parts of South America, particularly of Cayenne and Guiana; and passes the night perched on the lower branches of trees, two or three feet from the ground. The female lays from twelve to fifteen eggs, the size of those of an hen, and of a beautiful green colour. Makes the nest on the ground, near the stump of some large tree; and if disturbed, rolls the eggs to another place, at a good distance. The young follow as soon as hatched, and hide themselves on the least approach of danger. It is said to have two broods in a year. Their food is fruits and grain of all kinds, as well as worms and insects. The Indians kill them frequently while roosting on the trees, of nights. The flesh is accounted very good, and the eggs also reckoned a great dainty.

'The note or call of this bird may be heard a great way off, and is a kind of dull whistle, which it makes exactly at sun-set every evening, and at break of day; by the imitating of which the natives decoy the birds within the reach of the gun or net.'

Mr. Latham is clearly of opinion that turkeys came originally from America, and were introduced into England about the year 1524.

'They are found to be the largest in the northern parts of that continent, where they are frequently met with by hundreds in a flock: in the day-time frequent the woods, where they feed on acorns, and return at night to the swamps to roost, which they do on the trees. They are frequently taken by means of dogs, though they run faster for a time; but the dogs persisting in the pursuit, the birds soon grow fatigued, and take to the highest trees, where they will suffer themselves to be shot one after another, if within reach of the marksman.'

Our readers will recollect the dispute, on that subject, between Mr. Barrington and Mr. Pennant; on which we can only at present observe, that the weight of evidence is strongly in favour of the opinion of the present author, unless, as is the case with other disputed vegetables and animals, turkeys are the property both of the old and new world. But the silence of the ancient historians on the subject is a striking argument against this supposition. As natural historians, we
have

have derived much information from our author, who has introduced many new species to our knowledge, from the later discoveries. His other observations are necessarily short, and, particularly in the passeres, insignificant. In the gallinæ, they are sometimes more important; we shall select only one other passage, to rescue our common cock-fighters from the charge of peculiar or extraordinary inhumanity.

‘We find likewise, that nations far distant from us are fond of it; being used as a pastime in China, and many parts of India. In Sumatra they do not trim the cocks for this sport as in England, nor is the same kind of artificial spur (or gaffle, as it is called) used, being flat, and sharp-edged, like a crooked lancet, or rather like the blade of a scimitar, and proves a most destructive weapon. This is not confined to a particular part of the leg, but is placed higher or lower, according to the weight or size of the birds matched against each other, lest one should fight with advantage against the other; and it is affirmed that the sport is carried to so high a pitch at Sumatra, that instances have occurred of a father staking his children or wife, and a son his mother and sisters, on the issue of a battle.’

We shall now conclude our account of this volume, by wishing our author equal success in his subsequent pursuits.

The Works of George Berkeley, D. D. late Bishop of Cloyne in Ireland. To which is added, An Account of his Life, and several of his Letters to Thomas Prior, Esq. Dean Gervais, and Mr. Pope, &c. &c. In Two Volumes. 4to. 2l. 2s. in Boards. Robinson.

WE have at last attained what has been long and frequently desired, a complete edition of bishop Berkeley's Works, in quarto, of which we have been hitherto deprived by the death of Mr. Ewing, a spirited and ingenious book-feller in Dublin, which happened, we believe, about the year 1764.. We know not that we have now any thing to regret in this event, except the elegant designs for the new college in Bermuda, which were said to be the work of Dr. Berkeley, and to have been in the possession of Mrs. Ewing. In this edition we are only presented with a plan of the city of Bermuda, metropolis of the Summer Islands, which is rather a proof of the magnificence of the design, than of its real state. The works of the bishop are collected in these volumes, and reprinted in a more splendid form. They contain the Life of Bishop Berkeley.—Letters, &c.—Of the Principles of Human Know-

Knowledge.—Introduction.—Three Dialogues between Hylas and Philonous.—An Essay towards a New Theory of Vision.—Alciphron: or the Minute Philosopher, in Seven Dialogues.—Passive Obedience.—Arithmetica absque Algebra aut Euclide demonstrata.—Miscellanea Mathematica.—De Motu.—The Analyst.—A Defence of Free-Thinking in Mathematics.—An Appendix concerning Mr. Walton's Vindication of Sir Isaac Newton's Principles of Fluxions.—Reasons for not replying to Mr. Walton's full Answer.—An Essay towards preventing the Ruin of Great Britain.—A Discourse, addressed to Magistrates and Men in Authority.—A Word to the Wife.—A Letter to the Roman Catholics of the Diocese of Cloyne.—Maxims concerning Patriotism.—The Querist.—A Proposal for the better supplying of Churches in our Foreign Plantations, and for converting the Savage Americans to Christianity.—Verses, on the Prospect of planting Arts and Learning in America.—A Sermon, preached before the Incorporated Society, for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts.—Siris.—A Letter to T——P——, Esq. containing some farther Remarks on the Virtues of Tar Water.—Farther Thoughts on Tar Water.

We find nothing which has been ascribed to him omitted, except the Adventures of Gaudenzio di Lucca, a political romance, as remarkable for its very singular and romantic descriptions, as for the judgment of the political regulations, and the humanity and benevolence which seems to have dictated every part of it. The work itself is certainly worthy of a prelate so much distinguished for his philanthropy; nor are the sentiments inconsistent with those which are displayed in other parts of his writings: but, from the silence of the present very respectable editors, we are led to suspect that it was not written by our author, though generally attributed to him.

The Life of bishop Berkeley is related with candour and accuracy by Dr. Stock, late fellow of Trinity College, in Dublin; and the materials were communicated by the bishop's brother, who is still alive. This work is by no means new to the public. It was published, separately, in 1776, and very particularly mentioned in our Forty-second volume. Since that period it has been re-published in the second volume of the new edition of the Biographia Britannica, for which it is said to have been originally written. On this account we shall enlarge no farther on it. The Letters which are subjoined, are also not entirely new: those to Mr. Pope are published with his other letters; though the first is omitted in Mr. Pope's own edition: and that to Dr. Arbuthnot, on the subject

ject of Mount Vesuvius, in the Philosophical Transactions, N^o 254. Some letters to Thomas Prior, Esq. now first appear; but they are of little consequence, except those extracts which relate to his Bermuda scheme. These indeed are strong pictures of the mildness and candour of Berkeley, and equally show his patient perseverance in pursuit of an object so congenial to the enthusiasm of his mind, at the same time supported by the cool determination of mature deliberation. He seems perfectly happy at his apparent success, fully conscious of the propriety and rectitude of the attempt.

‘Ex. 10. May 12, 1726. After six weeks struggle against an earnest opposition from different interests and motives, I have yesterday carried my point, just as I desired, in the house of commons, by an extraordinary majority, none having the confidence to speak against it, and not above two giving their negatives, which was done in so low a voice as if they themselves were ashamed of it. They were both considerable men in stocks in trade, and in the city: and in truth I have had more opposition from that sort of men, and from the governors and traders to America, than from any others. But God be praised, there is an end of all their narrow and mercantile views and endeavours, as well as of the jealousies and suspicions of others (some whereof were very great men) who apprehended this college may produce an independency in America, or at least lessen its dependency upon England. Now I must tell you that you have nothing to do but go on with farming my deanery, &c. according to the tenor of my former letter, which I suspended by a subsequent one till I should see the event of yesterday.’

This bugbear of independence was destined to be realized by other means, and less honourable instruments; yet if we must allow Berkeley the gift of prophecy, we may ultimately rejoice in the change. His verses on that subject seem to be the only ones which he ever wrote; and, as they are not generally known, we shall insert them.

‘The Muse, disgusted at an age and clime,
Barren of every glorious theme,
In distant lands now waits a better time,
Producing subjects worthy fame:

In happy climes, where from the genial sun
And virgin earth such scenes ensue,
The force of art by nature seems outdone,
And fancied beauties by the true:

In happy climes the seat of innocence,
Where nature guides and virtue rules,
Where men shall not impose for truth and sense,
The pedantry of courts and schools:

There

There shall be sung another golden age,
 The rise of empire and of arts,
 The good and great inspiring epic rage,
 The wisest heads and noblest hearts.

Not such as Europe breeds in her decay ;
 Such as she bred when fresh and young,
 When heavenly flame did animate her clay,
 By future poets shall be sung.

Westward the course of empire takes its way ;
 The four first acts already past,
 A fifth shall close the drama with the day ;
 Time's noblest offspring is the last.'

The other extracts of letters to Mr. Prior, dean Gervais, &c. equally distinguish the mild, candid, and benevolent friend of mankind ; but we find few passages worth transcribing. The letter on earthquakes is inserted in this edition, which evinces its authenticity ; so that we shall extract some parts of it.

' I remember to have heard Count Tezzani at Catania say, that some hours before the memorable earthquake of 1692, which overturned the whole city, he observed a line extended in the air, proceeding, as he judged, from exhalations poised and suspended in the atmosphere ; also that he heard a hollow, frightful murmur about a minute before the shock. Of twenty-five thousand inhabitants eighteen thousand absolutely perished ; not to mention others who were miserably bruised and wounded. There did not escape so much as one single house. The streets were narrow, and the buildings high ; so there was no safety in running into the streets : but on the first tremor (which happens a small space, perhaps a few minutes, before the downfall) they found it the safest way to stand under a door-case, or at the corners of the house.

' The count was dug out of the ruins of his own house, which had overwhelmed about twenty persons, only seven whereof were got out alive. Though he rebuilt his house with stone, yet he ever after lay in a small adjoining apartment made of reeds plaistered over. Catania was rebuilt more regular and beautiful than ever : the houses indeed are lower and the streets broader than before, for security against future shocks. By their account, the first shock seldom or never doth the mischief ; but the *repliche*, as they term them, are to be dreaded. The earth, I was told, moved up and down like the boiling of a pot, *terra bollente di sotto in sopra*, to use their own expression. This sort of subsultive motion is ever accounted the most dangerous.

' Britain is an island—*maritima autem maxime quatiuntur*, saith Pliny—and in this island are many mineral and sulphureous

phureous waters. I see nothing in the natural constitution of London, or the parts adjacent, that should render an earthquake impossible or improbable. Whether there be any thing in the moral state thereof that should exempt it from that fear, I leave others to judge. I am your humble servant, A. B.

The bishop seems always to have been fond of the study of medicine; and frequently inculcates the use of tar-water to his friends. Another remedy, mentioned in this part of his work, is for the bloody flux. He recommends 'a heaped spoonful (tea spoonful probably) of common rosin powdered, in a little fresh broth, every five or six hours, till the flux is stopped.' General recommendations are always suspicious, especially if they are warmly supported; but the simplicity of this remedy is certainly a powerful argument in favour of its efficacy.—We cannot avoid quoting the very classical epitaph on Thomas Prior, Esq. written by the bishop, with all the elegance of the Augustan age. Our readers will probably think, with us, that it deserves to be preserved in this place.

Memoriæ sacrum

THOMÆ PRIOR

Viri, si quis unquam alius, de patriâ

optimè meriti:

Qui, cum prodesse mallet quàm conspici,

nec in senatum cooptatus

nec consiliorum aulæ particeps

nec ullo publico munere insignitus

rem tamen publicam

mirificè auxit et ornavit

auspiciis, consiliis, labore indefesso:

Vir innocuus, probus, pius

partium studiis minimè addictus

de re familiari parum sollicitus

cum civium commoda unicè spectaret

Quicquid vel ad inopiæ levamen

vel ad vitæ elegantiam facit

quicquid ad defidiam populi vincendam

aut ad bonas artes excitandas pertinet

id omne pro virili excoluit

Societatis Dubliniensis

auctor, institutor, curator:

Quæ fecerit

pluribus dicere haud refert:

quorum narraret marmor

illa quæ omnes norunt

illæ quæ civium animis insculptæ

nulla dies delebit?

We

We have thus mentioned some circumstances which distinguish the bishop as a man, of whom it was scarcely an hyperbole to have said, that he possessed 'every virtue under heaven.' To enumerate every thing of this kind, would be again to detail every article of his life, or to transcribe every extract of his letters; but there is a more important point of view in which he must be considered, that is, as a writer and a metaphysician. With the best intentions, he has produced some of the worst effects; and, though a decided enemy to scepticism, he has been represented as a sceptic, and enrolled among its defenders. 'That all his arguments,' says Mr. Hume, 'though otherwise intended, are, in reality, merely sceptical, appears from this, that they admit of no answer, and produce no conviction.' We mean not to accuse Mr. Hume of deliberate misrepresentation, nor to enhance our own sagacity; but must allege, that though they really produce no conviction, they admit of a very satisfactory answer. Perhaps even his general position is not true: there are many things which it is impossible to answer, yet certainly produce no conviction; and for ample proofs we might refer him to the metaphysics and dialectics of the last century. His great work, which is the object of censure, he styles the 'principles of human knowledge.' We shall not contend at present with his opinions of abstract ideas and general names, but come at once to those arguments which are intended to destroy the existence of matter. It is however necessary to mention his distinction between the ideas arising only in the mind, and those suggested by somewhat external to it.

The existence of any thing external, he says, is only evinced by its effects, that is, by the ideas excited in consequence of its impression on the senses; so that whatever gives the idea of something material and external, is in fact the prototype, or rather the object. But inert matter can never be a cause, because the very essence of cause implies action, contrary to the nature of the subject. The ideas seemingly excited by sensible objects, external to the mind, cannot therefore arise from these objects, but from some superior power, whose influence is universal, and whose mode of action is so regular and consistent, as to excite the same ideas in the same situations, and consequently to give the impression of something fixed and permanent. The ideas arising in our own minds, on the contrary, have no regularity and no connection; they are excited without any dependence on our preceding experience, and their duration is as uncertain as their origin. From this general account it will be obvious, that it is impossible to make a more clear distinction between ideas and fan-

fancies, or to establish more certainly the evidence of the senses: the question turns only on this point, are our sensible ideas from a really existing object, or excited by a superior being, in consequence of a harmony and laws pre-established and fixed? If this be an exact state of the question, it is not very far distant from the opinion of father Boscovich. He seems to have shown very clearly (at least in our opinion) that the resistance and other qualities of matter do not arise really from matter, but from spheres of repulsion connected with it. Now, if repulsion is sufficient for this purpose, we may, without any loss, substitute it to matter itself. But to return to Berkeley.

The great defect of the argument lies in this particular, that causality supposes action, and that action is inconsistent with the *vis inertiae* of matter. Let us first assume the opinion of the *vis inertiae* in all its rigour, and enquire into the effects of resistance, in the human body. An immoveable inert body completely fills one of the larger branches of the descending aorta. It is incapable of any thing but resistance; consequently the blood will be sent in greater quantities into every other vessel, and produce every effect of repletion in those organs which they supply. Again, it is allowed that motion of some kind is propagated through the nerves; because tying or cutting a nerve will destroy the functions of the part to which it is sent: a stick, then, in the hands of a blind-man impinges on a solid resisting body; it is capable of causing action, because it is capable of resistance, and checking the course of that power which would otherwise have moved on without controul. The argument does not therefore depend on our showing how body operates on spirit; if we destroy the principal position, the whole must fall to the ground, entirely independent of this very subtle question.

It will be obvious that this illustration, taken from effects of the human body, involves a more complicated consideration than the general position warrants. The dispute is however about the animal œconomy, and is best illustrated by the effect of causes on it. In this case, strictly speaking, inert matter is not the cause, but the exertion of the animal power, in consequence of a disturbance of its functions; and it is yet to be determined, whether this agent be material or spiritual. Yet the question is in the same predicament with the answer; so that this inaccuracy is of no consequence.

But the argument will receive much more strength, when we consider that matter has by no means that rigorous inertness with which it has been endowed. The smaller particles have evidently a power of attraction, very distinct from gravitation,

as is evinced by the elective attractions or affinities in chemical experiments. The larger masses possess elasticity; and, in various circumstances, become causes of action from their own inherent properties. The water which turns a mill, descending by its gravity, is a cause of action which entirely results from its property of gravitation combined with its elasticity. It must also be again considered, that this argument is connected with the animal œconomy, in which it may be carried farther, if required; for in the human body, not only resistance from absolute inactivity may be a cause of action, but a power, whose ultimate tendency is to diminish the action of the vital parts, may appear to increase it. As this argument is not necessary in the present instance, we shall only mention that an absence of heat produces tremors, a pressure on a nerve has been the cause of epilepsy, and the removal of an usual support has occasioned convulsions.

We have thus given the outline of an opposition to the principal argument, for our limits will admit of no more; and we think it will not only appear that Berkeley's opinion, limited as he has given it, by no means leads to scepticism, but that it wants a principal support, though at that period it could not easily be shaken. To question the existence of matter, because we cannot prove it, except by its effects, indeed leads to scepticism; but this was not Berkeley's attempt. He endeavoured to show, that those effects by which it was usually proved, were inconsistent with each other, and reduced the whole to an absurdity. He indeed was consistent and systematical on this subject: he seldom lost sight of it in his future works, in spite of ridicule and in spite of argument. In his tract *de Motu*, he endeavours to prove, from similar arguments, that neither the beginning or communication of motion can be owing to any thing but the immediate agency of the Deity. We were aware of this attempt, in our former arguments, and mention it now merely to show that he argues in a circle, and consequently this is no proof against what we have alleged. Motion is only a contingent to matter; but matter does not exist, consequently the arguments from motion are of no consequence. Matter is certainly relative to motion, as space to the bodies which exist in it; both must stand or fall together: so that Berkeley's tract on motion is, if we may be allowed the expression, a strong contradiction to all his former arguments.

As we have been detained so long on this subject, we cannot examine, as we intended, his *Analyst*. Both these subjects seem to show that Berkeley, with the best of hearts, and an excellent understanding, was not always qualified to distinguish

guish and decide on the minuter parts of science; where it is necessary to separate the object to be examined, from those which resemble it, and ascertain, with precision, its relations. Perhaps the state of philosophy, and the higher branches of the metaphysis, were then involved in obscurity. It is evident that the strictness with which the doctrine of the vis inertiae of matter was delivered by sir Isaac Newton, embarrassed considerably those mixed philosophers who endeavoured to apply his theorems to the construction of machines. At that time also we had not received Mr. Robins' masterly 'Discourse on Fluxions,' or Mr. M'Laurin's very complete treatise on it: perhaps we owe the more perfect illustration of this intricate subject to Dr. Berkeley's doubts concerning it.

In the article before referred to, (vol. xlii.) we gave a general account of his more important works, and of the reasons which probably suggested them. As we have now endeavoured to rescue the bishop's character from the charge of scepticism, though at the expence of detecting his errors, we shall only congratulate the admirers of the virtues, the learning, and even the eccentricities of this very amiable and respectable prelate, on the present complete and elegant edition. It will give a permanency to those works, which might otherwise be forgotten; it will teach those who might have despised the reputed sceptic, to admire the warm active benevolence of the man, and to be candid in their censure on others, since even the abilities of Dr. Berkeley could not entirely guard him from error.

A Short Attempt to recommend the Study of Botanical Analogy, in investigating the Properties of Medicines from the Vegetable Kingdom. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinson.

THE great object of the present author is to point out a more close and intimate connection between botany and medicine, by showing that the more natural botanical arrangements contain medicines of very similar powers. The different genera, for instance, are composed of species whose medical properties strongly resemble each other; and the natural orders are generally distinguished by at least a family likeness;

'facies non omnibus una

Nec diversa tamen, qualis decet esse sororum.'

The author confesses that his attempt is not new. He has quoted Petiver, Hoffman, and Hasselquist, in the first volume of the *Amœnitates Academicæ*, as his predecessors. Yet the indistinct and imperfect accounts of these authors are frequently supplied, in this little tract. We meet with some

other facts, which we do not recollect, in them, and some which indeed they could not have known. Another predecessor in this walk he has omitted, we mean Dr. Cullen, in his *Materia Medica*; but what he has done in this way is indeed so inconsiderable, that we can scarcely accuse our author of neglect. We shall select, as a specimen of this performance, which is written in an easy lively manner, a passage which could not have been taken from any former writer.

‘The true Acacia of the Greeks, the *δακρυδὸν κυανωπὸν ἀκκυθὴς* of Andromachus, has been long neglected, and would almost have been forgotten, if the name had not been preserved, by our retaining under the same title, the inspissated juice of the unripe flos. It was confessedly a very powerful astringent, frequently used in Egypt, both as a medicine and an ingredient in various æconomical preparations; but, by the neglect of our merchants, or the prevalence of fashion, it has been long since unknown, and we have preferred the terra Japonica, which has, at least, the advantage of coming to us by a longer voyage, and perhaps a greater expence. By the care of Mr. Kerr, who has long resided in the factory at Patna, we have, at last, received a description of the plant, from which the juice, in its inspissated state improperly called an earth, is prepared; and we find that we have probably recovered a very similar remedy to the ancient acacia. The one is an extract from the *mimosa nilotica*, the other from another species of the same genus. The names might have suggested as much to a dexterous etymologist; for acacia or akatia, without the Arabic prefix, a, is not very unlike kaath, cate, and caetchu.—But fortunately, amidst the various causes of confusion in medical enquiries, etymology has not found a place; physicians are generally contented with observing a similarity of facts; and when they are so happy, are often negligent about names. It may be proper to add, that the very useful exudation, the gum Arab. proceeds from the species of *mimosa*, from which the acacia was formerly prepared. It may therefore become necessary to enquire, whether the gum may not be procured from other sources, since we have now a share only of the trade, by the courtesy, and at the will of our former enemies.

‘It is unnecessary to inform the learned reader, that the gum elemi, once highly valuable, is forgotten, while the balsam of Mecca, with its fruit and wood, are still carefully preserved in the East, and only resigned through despair of obtaining them in Europe. We have been lately informed that both these substances are the production of similar plants,

in-

included under the same genus. But the amyris opobalsamum is rarely found, even in Asia; and the elemifera, though it has been seen in Carolina and the West Indian islands, is also uncommon. There is a species in Jamaica which is less so; and it may be of service to try its effects. We often wander to a great distance in search of remedies, which nature profusely offers at our own doors. The species which I would recommend to the attention of travellers, is mentioned by many authors.—It is described by Sloane as “*Lauro affinis, terebinthi folio alato, ligno odorato candido, flore albo.*” This species certainly deserves a trial, by those who are still willing to trust a remedy which has been so much celebrated. Its virtues however, when separated from the exaggerations of superstition, are probably few; it seems to be a warm cordial and a diuretic; but, as it has been superseded by the less fragrant turpentine in the last effect, the former may be easily obtained by more agreeable medicines.’

The observations on bitters, and the examples taken from the several natural orders, are frequently striking and ingenious; but we shall select only one part, as a criterion of the author’s labours. The digitalis is, at present, little known, and lately introduced as among the officinals. If it possesses the properties, which are suspected, from the botanical analogy, we shall have a good opinion of this mode of investigation. It indeed appears highly probable; and the ground, though now seemingly barren, may bear ‘some fifty, and some an hundred fold.’

‘If then we examine the place of our more common medicines in their natural orders, we shall be surprised at their vicinity to others of a similar quality. The rhubarb, for instance, precedes our common dock; and the old monks rhubarb was really taken from the latter genus,—the rumex alpinus. The hellebore stands in the same class with the aconite, the nigella, and the pulsatilla. The adonis, which was probably the hellebore of Hippocrates, joins very nearly to our common hellebore, and to the anemone, a plant of similar qualities. The solanum, physalis, hyoscyamus, datura, and belladonna are in the same class: the digitalis, lately introduced to the Materia Medica, by the college of Edinburgh, appears to have similar qualities. If we enquire into its virtues, from its botanical analogy, we shall find that it is probably poisonous, and therefore to be used in small quantities; that it is of the narcotic kind; but that, as some of the class are diuretics, particularly the Nicotiana and physalis, if it resembles them, it will probably be an active and powerful medicine of a similar nature.’

As these remarks occurred in an examination of that extensive and heterogeneous mass, of which the *Materia Medica* is composed, it concludes with some strictures on this subject, which are just and proper. In the present state of the science, it is certainly necessary to retrench; and our author proposes the retrenchment to begin in the very numerous bodies of stimulants and astringents; yet almost all the new remedies, he observes, are of the latter kind. He thinks that we cannot at this time, with advantage, form the higher arrangements or classes, because the properties of individuals are so varied, and even now so little known, that comprehensive collections more frequently mislead than inform. We really wish to see the *Materia Medica* again examined with attention; and should be glad to find the plan of our author executed by a physician of judgment and erudition. Perhaps our author may undertake the task. As it seems to have been the object of his researches; and as the present work is no unfavourable specimen of his abilities, he may emerge from the cloud in which he is at present involved, and what was begun in obscurity be continued in open day.

Runnamede. A Tragedy. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell.

THIS tragedy has never appeared on the stage, though by no means unfit for it. The principal subject, the grant of Magna Charta, must necessarily be highly interesting; but there are also other situations which are more peculiarly affecting, and more generally attractive. The characters are but slightly discriminated; the barons are intrepid and violent; the lover animated and heroic; the heroine tender and affectionate. The language, though easy and perspicuous, is too nearly allied to conversation; it is seldom raised by passion, or varied by poetic ornaments. It will be obvious, therefore, that the great interest, and in some passages we have really felt it to be great, must arise from the different situations, which we shall attempt to explain. The Play opens with the reconciliation, or if we may be allowed the expression, coalition, of the Norman and Saxon lords, who are addressed as

— high lords of parliament,
Hereditary guardians of the kingdom.

The price of this coalition is Elvina, the daughter of a Saxon, already betrothed to Elvine. He is at that time in the camp of the dauphin, who is represented, perhaps with truth, as designing, under the appearance of an ally, to take advantage of the domestic feuds, and become the conqueror

of

of England. Elvina writes to her lover, requesting him to return; and the ambassador, by whom the letter is to be conveyed, addresses it to the dauphin. The letter is intercepted, and Elvina condemned to die as a traitress. Hence the principal business and distress of the scene: it is only necessary to add, that she is rescued by Elvine, who assumes the character of her champion, and kills his rival.—Here the play should have ended; for the measure of the calamity was full, and the catastrophe just. But, to add another act, Elvine's mind is tainted with suspicions respecting the fatal letter; and he rushes, in the battle which ensues with the French troops, into the midst of the carnage, where he meets the ambassador, who, in his dying moments, reveals the treachery. Elvine returns in safety, and the play ends happily. It is not only by this additional act, that the mind and its tide of feelings are embarrassed and obstructed; but in fact it contains an obvious contradiction. Elvine knows of Elvina's letter to him; and that on account of it she is imprisoned; yet, when he hears of the letter to the dauphin, as the cause, he is supposed unable to explain the mistake. In the progress of the tragedy also, we are so much interested for the heroine, that the great object, the grant of the Charter, is almost a secondary incident.

Our author is however sometimes happy in his conduct: the moment of expectation, the pain, and horror of suspense, more dreadful than even the worst event, are, in the following scene, substituted to the more glittering, but less interesting spectacle of the combat. We have consequently extracted it as a specimen.

' Edgar, Elvina, Emma.

' Edgar. Unhappy maid! she comes from death. She looks
As she indeed were risen from the grave
A faint in glory! let me kneel before her.

Most noble lady, graciously permit
An old domestic of your father's house
To kiss your garment, at your feet to fall
With flowing tears, I hope your goodness still
Remembers me.

' Elvina. I've not forgot you, Edgar;
Nor will I e'er forget you. Rise, my friend.

' Edgar. Lovely and gentle! you was ever thus.
Your face still shone upon your father's house,
The face of a good angel. O what men,
What murderers, could doom that beauteous form
To such a death?

' Elvina. I have forgiven them, Edgar.

' Edgar. But heaven will not forgive them—

* *Elvina.* Where is Elvine?
Where has my father with the barons gone?
Thy colour changes. Ah! my heart forbodes
The fear'd event. Is this the appointed hour
For mortal combat?—

* *Edgar.* 'Tis indeed the time.

* *Elvina.* [*Trumpets heard.*] The trumpets sound. The
dreadful signal's given.
Now life or death. Help, help me, powers of heaven!
Support me, Emma!—

* *Emma.* Angels hover o'er him,
And guard the hero with the shield of heaven!

* *Elvina.* Run Edgar to the lifts, and bring us tidings.
Fain would I look—I dare not look that way.
Hush! hark! O Emma! didst thou hear a groan?

* *Emma.* 'Tis midnight silence!

* *Elvina.* Let me look again.
Yonder they meet. Behold the flash of arms!
And lo the sword that shall be died in blood!
Whose blood, O heavens! turn Emma to the field:
I'll look no more,

* *Emma.* Heavens! how I tremble! ha!
A mortal stroke! there rose the shriek of death!—

* *Elvina.* Now all is over, and my fate is fix'd.
I'm destin'd now to rapture or despair,
For ever and for ever! [*A loud shout heard.*]

O my heart!
The army triumphs in their general's joy.
My hero's fallen. I am gone again.
My God! twice in one day!—

* *Emma.* I hear the sound
Of feet approaching fast.

* *Elvina.* Let us be gone. [*As they go out*]

Enter Elvine.

Where is my love? my life? Where dost thou fly,
Thou first of women? fairer to my sight
Than e'er thou wast, and dearer to my soul!
Return and bless my arms that stretch to strain thee—

* *Elvina.* Alive! O God—

* *Elvine.* Thou hast no foe. Thy cause,
The cause of beauty, innocence, and love,
Has made thy knight victorious in the field.

* *Elvina.* How shall I thank the saviour of my life?
'Tis thus! 'tis thus! my Elvine!—

[*Running from the side scene into his arms.*]
* *Elvine.* My Elvina!

At last we meet in joy.

* *Elvina.* To part no more.

Oh! Elvine, but for thee my love, for thee,

Alas!

Alas! this day—O how shall I repay
Thy matchless truth, thy tenderness, thy love?

‘*Elvina.* In this embrace ’tis more than all repay’d.’

We cannot resist transcribing the following speech of the father of Elvina, as it is a faithful picture of the human heart; and, though the determination be Roman, it by no means partakes of the stoical apathy, which was the pride of that stern nation.

‘*Albemarle.* [*On the front.*] Am I the judge? my country,
at thy voice,

This old gray head shall wear the helm again:

Bare in the field these scars shall bleed anew.—

O powerful nature! I’m a father still—

Thou bleeding innocence! ah! should the sword

Just aim to touch that tender trembling bosom,

’Tis mine to ward the blow.—Shall I direct

The dagger to the bosom of my child,

And stop the dearest current of my blood?—

But justice, truth, imperious honour, call . . .

Forgive me, O my country, if I stain

A Roman’s virtue with unmanly drops!—

’Tis done. Th’irrevocable doom is sealed.

‘Where am I? Ha! the shades of death surround me,

And graves, and monuments, and ghastly forms—

That path leads down to blood—Thou fainted shade,

Who gav’st a blooming cherub to my arms,

O turn thy tender eyes from this sad scene,

Nor look upon the deed!—Ah! piteous sight!

Stretch’d on the block, the trembling victim’s laid;

The pale hand waves that should have clos’d my eyes.

That was the sign of death!—What do I see?—

A headless trunk; a mangled corpse—oh! oh!

‘Barons, the dreadful sacrifice is made:

But spare me! spare a father the sad sight!—

—Yet ah! before I go let me behold her,

To take a long last look of my Elvina

Before she dies, before we part for ever.

—I hear her step. The trembler comes. She looks

As she were innocent. Her face is woeful,

Yet it is lovely; I could look for ever.

My daughter—thou art doom’d—these tears will tell thee—

My child! my child!

[*Looking earnestly upon her as he goes out.*]

We must confess that we do not often meet with such energy and passion in this play; but the parting scene between Albemarle and Elvina is neither uninteresting nor unnatural. Yet situations of this kind have been so often represented, that we may find repetitions, without any imputation

ation of plagiarism. If the observations, which seem to suggest the necessity of an alteration, were attended to, we think this piece might at least equal many modern tragedies, which have been favourably received on the stage. Our author observes however in his prologue, that

‘ If while the tale the theatre commands,
Your hearts applaud him, he’ll acquit your hands ;
Proud on his country’s cause to build his name,
And add the *patriot’s* to the *poet’s* fame.’

Grammar of the Bengal Language. By Nathaniel Brassey Halbed. Printed at Hooghly, in Bengal, in 1778. Small 4to. 1l. 1s. in Boards. Elmsley.

THE office of grammarian and lexicographer has been too frequently depreciated, not only by the superficial pretender, who piques himself on the intuitive powers of his own genius, but even by men of real learning and abilities ; by men, who having reached the summit of knowledge, affect to despise the means which facilitated their ascent. This injurious contempt has sometimes been favoured by the ignorance or indolence of those who have thus dared to tread the more thorny paths of philology ; yet malice itself must cease to depreciate the merits of such labours, when it recollects the many distinguished characters who have exerted their talents in this branch of literature, with so much honour to themselves, and advantage to the public. For surely neither the ridicule of Scaliger, nor the satire of Bolingbroke, can be thought to weigh against the names of Johnson and Lowth, of Richardson and Jones.

It is with pleasure we rank the author of the work now under consideration, among these eminent benefactors to the cause of learning ; more particularly as no attempt has hitherto been made to facilitate the acquisition of the Bengal language.

The utility of the present publication, considered in a commercial and political light, is evident, from the advantages which would accrue to the India company, if those whom they appoint to civil posts in their service, were competent masters of the Bengalese dialect. Of this our readers will be convinced by the following extract from the author’s very sensible and learned preface:

‘ What the pure Hindostanic is to upper India, the language which I have here endeavoured to explain is to Bengal, intimately related to the Sanscrit, both in expressions, construction, and character. It is the sole channel of personal and epistolary communication among the Hindoos of every

occupation and tribe. All their business is transacted, and all their accounts are kept in it; and as their system of education is in general very confined, there are few among them who can read or write any other idiom: the uneducated, or eight parts in ten of the whole nation, are necessarily confined to the usage of their mother tongue.

The board of commerce at Calcutta, and the several chiefs of the subordinate factories, cannot properly conduct the India company's mercantile correspondence and negotiations, without the intermediate agency of Bengal interpreters: for the whole system of the investment, in every stage of its preparation and provision, is managed in the language of the country; in which all the accounts of the *aurungs* (or manufacturing towns,) those of the company's export warehouse; all proposals and letters from agents, merchants, contractors, weavers, winders, bleachers, &c. are constantly presented; and into which all orders to *gomastahs*, *aumeens*, and other officers, for the purchase and procuration of goods, must be translated.

Important as this language must consequently appear to the commercial line, its adoption would be no less beneficial to the revenue department. For although the contracts, leases, and other obligations, executed between government and its immediate dependants and tenants, continue to be drawn out in the Persian dialect, yet the under-leases and engagements which these in their turn grant to the peasants and cultivators of the ground; and all those copy-hold tenures called *pottahs*, are constantly written in Bengalese. And it may even be doubted, whether more than one-third of the Gentoo zemindars, farmers, and other lessees of the state, can read a single word of their own accounts and representations, as delivered in their moonshee's Persian translation.

The internal policy of the kingdom demands an equal share of attention; and the many impositions to which the poorer class of people are exposed, in a country still fluctuating between the relics of former despotic dominion, and the liberal spirit of its present legislature, have long cried out for a remedy. This has lately been proposed in the appointment of gentlemen of mature experience in the manners and customs of the natives to the several divisions and districts of Bengal, to act as judiciary arbitrators between the head-farmer and his under-tenants; with whom the indigent villager might find immediate and effectual redress from the exactions of an imperious landlord or grasping collector, freed from the necessary delays of an ordinary court of justice, and the expence and inconvenience of a regular suit. Such a

measure, by holding out to each industrious individual a near prospect of property in his earnings and security in his possessions, promises, in the most effectual manner, to ensure stability to our conquests, and popularity to our administration; and will probably set open the British territories as an asylum for the discouraged husbandman, the neglected artist, and oppressed labourer from every quarter of Hindostan. But this important commission will be more immediately and more extensively beneficial, in proportion as it is conferred on those only whom a competent knowledge of the Bengalese has previously qualified for a personal investigation of every unwarrantable exaction, and scrutiny into every complicated account.

‘Add to this, that there is not one office under the *nazim*, or mogul administration, nor one provincial or subordinate court of justice in the kingdom, where an interpreter for this language is not judged as necessary and as constantly employed, as for the Persian; and if any public notices are to be dispersed through the country, or affixed in the great towns, they are always attended with a Bengal translation. In short, if vigour, impartiality and dispatch be required to the operations of government, to the distribution of justice, to the collections of the revenues, and to the transactions of commerce, they are only to be secured by a proper attention to that dialect used by the body of the people; especially as it is much better calculated both for public and private affairs by its plainness, its precision, and regularity of construction, than the flowery sentences and modulated periods of the Persian.

‘Another singular advantage which it possesses is its aptitude for the business of the computing-house. For the Bengal doctrine of numbers, both in the forms of the figures, and in their application, nearly approaches to the system adopted in Europe; from which nothing can more essentially differ than the Persian mode of cyphering, both in arrangement and application; so that those who would be acquainted with the latter, have a new arithmetic as well as a new language to acquire; and if they have any concerns transacted through this medium, they must undergo the subsequent trouble of reducing their Persian accounts to the European form; whereas those of the Bengal accomptant require nothing more than an accurate copyist.’

This last convenience, which would result from a knowledge of the Bengal language, is proved by an account which the author has given of the methods of arithmetical calculation made

made use of by the Bengalese. Indeed, from a careful perusal of Mr. Halhed's work, we are equally convinced of the necessity of the end he has in view, and of his success in the execution of his plan. We therefore strenuously recommend his book to all those who aspire to stations of honour or emolument in the eastern world. Nor will such only be benefited by this work. The speculative linguist, who would trace the progress of arts and civilization, by examining the analogy which subsists between different languages, will be obliged to Mr. Halhed for many judicious hints on the mutual affinity of Asiatic and European tongues, and particularly on the common relation which almost all the former have to the Sanscrit, or ancient Braminical dialect.

The Moalakat; or Seven Arabian Poems, which were suspended on the Temple at Mecca. With a Translation and Arguments. By Sir William Jones. 4to. 10s. 6d. Elmsley.

A Specimen of Oriental poetry, or a performance of any kind which exhibits the genius, and delineates the manners of a people but little known, is in itself a subject of rational curiosity, and might, upon that ground only, naturally claim the attention of the public.—But when a work of such pretensions appears under the sanction of a name distinguished by general erudition, as well as by particular celebrity in this branch of literature, little needs be said to recommend it to perusal, or the favourable prepossession of the reader.—Such are the circumstances attending the publication before us: for the learning and talents of Sir William Jones, and his accurate and extensive knowledge of the languages, that has enabled him to complete the present work with advantage and success, are universally acknowledged and admired.

When scholars of this description thus render the more remote sources of knowledge acceptable to common readers, it is to be hoped that many who admire the translation, will wish to judge of the native beauties of the original; and hence the treasures of Oriental literature, instead of being confined to the dusty shelves of a few public libraries, may in time become the subject of general and fashionable investigation. And here we may remark, that those publications seem best adapted to promote this desirable effect, which exhibit such various specimens of the genius of the eastern writers, as may convey a favourable idea of their success in the different styles of composition.

The Moalakat is eminently possessed of this advantage: for though the poems which compose it are chiefly on the same

same general plan, being a species of dramatic pastoral, yet we find in various parts of them not only the plaintive tenderness of elegy, with that luxuriance of description, so conspicuous in Oriental compositions, but the sententious brevity of moral precept, and the fire and dignity of the true sublime. Of the two former we will first enable our readers to judge, by transcribing the following stanzas from the poem of Lebeid, which at the same time open to us an exact and entertaining view of the Arabian customs and modes of living.

1. 'Desolate are the mansions of the fair, the stations in *Minia*, where they rested, and those where they fixed their abodes! Wild are the hills of *Goul*, and deserted is the summit of *Rijaam*.
2. 'The canabs of *Rayaan* are destroyed: the remains of them are laid bare, and smoothed by the floods, like characters engraved on the solid rocks.
3. 'Dear ruins! Many a year has been closed, many a month, holy and unhallowed, has elapsed since I exchanged tender vows with the fair inhabitants.
4. 'The rainy constellations of spring have made their hills green and luxuriant: The drops from the thunder-clouds have drenched them with profuse as well as with gentle showers:
5. 'Showers from every nightly cloud, from every cloud veiling the horizon at day-break, and from every evening cloud, responsive with hoarse murmurs.
6. 'Here the wild eringo-plants raise their heads: here the antelopes bring forth their young by the sides of the valley; and here the ostriches drop their eggs.
7. 'The large-eyed wild cows lie suckling their young, a few days old: their young, who will soon become a herd on the plain.
8. 'The torrents have cleared the rubbish, and disclosed the traces of habitations, as the reeds of a writer restore effaced letters in a book;
9. 'Or as the black dust, sprinkled over the varied marks on a fair hand, brings to view, with a brighter tint, the blue stains of woad.
10. 'I stood asking news of the ruins concerning their lovely habitants; but what avail my questions to dreary rocks, who answer them only by their echo?
11. 'In the plains, which now are naked, a populous city once dwelled: but they decamped at early dawn, and nothing of them remains but the canals, which encircled their tents, and the *Thumaam*-plants, with which they were repaired.
12. 'How

12. 'How were thy tender affections raised, when the damsels of the tribe departed; when they hid themselves in carriages of cotton, like antelopes in their lair; and the tents, as they were struck, gave a piercing sound!
13. 'They were concealed in vehicles, whose sides were well covered with awnings and carpets, with fine-spun curtains, and pictured veils.
14. 'A company of maidens were seated in them, with black eyes and graceful motions, like the wild heifers of *Tudab*, or the roes of *Wegera*, tenderly gazing on their young.
15. 'They hastened their camels, till the sultry vapour gradually stole them from thy sight; and they seemed to pass through a vale, wild with tamarisks, and rough with large stones, like the valley of *Beisba*.'

The inquirer who would judge of the ethical tenets of the Arabians, will find much of his curiosity satisfied by perusing several passages in these Poems, particularly that of *Zohair*, the conclusion of which is composed wholly of proverbial or moral sentences, many of them highly characteristical. The former part of the same piece contains several images equally spirited and just. The following, which are selected from many others which abound in the Poems in general, must be allowed to be truly sublime.

29. 'War is a dire fiend, as you have known by experience; nor is this a new or doubtful assertion concerning her.
30. 'When you expelled her from your plain, you expelled her covered with infamy; but when you kindled her flame, she blazed and raged.
31. 'She ground you, as the mill grinds the corn with its lower stone: like a female camel, she became pregnant; she bore twice in one year; and at her last labour she was the mother of twins:
32. 'She brought forth Distress and Ruin; monsters full-grown; each of them deformed as the dun camel of *Aad*: She then gave them her breast and they were instantly weaned.'

These extracts, while they shew the style and genius of the original poems, may be sufficient to afford the English reader a specimen of the translation. We must add, however, that sir William intends to favour the learned world with a valuable addition to this work, in the form of a Preliminary Discourse and Notes; which would have been published with the present volume, had not the author's engagements made it impossible for him to prepare them last year.

The

'The Discourse, as we learn from the advertisement, will comprise Observations on the Antiquity of the Arabian Language and Letters; on the Dialects and Characters of *Himyar* and *Koraisb*, with Accounts of some of the Himyarick Poets; on the Manners of the Arabs, in the Age immediately preceding that of Mahomed; on the Temple of Mecca, and the Maallakat, or Pieces of Poetry suspended on its Walls or Gates; lastly, on the Lives of the Seven Poets, with a critical History of their Works, and the various Copies or Editions of them preserved in Europe, Asia, and Africa.

'The Notes will contain authorities and reasons for the translation of controverted passages; will elucidate all the obscure couplets, and exhibit or propose amendments of the text; will direct the reader's attention to particular beauties, or point out remarkable defects: and will throw light on the images, figures, and allusions of the Arabian poets, by citations, either from writers of their own country, or from such of our European travellers as best illustrate the ideas and customs of eastern nations.'

We sincerely hope the author will soon complete the work, of which he has here given us the outlines. In the mean time, we forbear to intrude upon his province, by saying any thing more of the Poems in question than is sufficient to give our readers a general idea of their merits.

Institutes Political and Military, written originally in the Mogul Language, by the Great Timour, improperly called Tamerlane, &c. &c. By Joseph White, B. D. 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Murray.

THE learned editor of this work congratulates himself on his not being obliged to combat general prejudices, or to introduce a new character to the world. The illustrious name of Timour was, he observes, first made known to Europe by tradition; and his heroic actions are still celebrated by many who have never seen the history written by Ali Yezdi, nor perused the accounts of D'Herbelot and Voltaire.—Indeed the common histories of this great personage have held him up to universal admiration under the glorious and splendid titles of a mighty emperor, a skilful and intrepid warrior, and a profound politician. The present publication, which exhibits him more perfectly in each of these characters, is supposed to have been written by himself, or at least under his particular inspection. It forms a kind of Supplement to a History, which he compiled, of his own exploits, from the journals which were kept regularly by his secretaries. The
History

History has not yet found its way into Europe; but there is reason to hope that Mr. Davy, who, we are told, will spare no search or expence to procure it, will bring it with him when he returns from India: in which case he will probably favour the public with a translation.

The scepticism of some critics having refused to admit the authenticity of Timour's Institutes, the evidence in their favour is laid before the reader in the form of a Letter from the Translator to the Editor. The substance of this Letter is as follows: I. Though neither Ali Yezdi nor Mirkhond take any notice either of the History, or the Institutes, yet this is no proof that they were not in being in their time. These historians might never have seen Timour's work; as it is probable that only one copy existed during the author's life, and perhaps for many years afterwards. II. It is true, that the Persian translator (Abu Taulib ul Housseini) says nothing to prove the authenticity of this valuable work. But from this we can only infer, either that he thought the work itself contained sufficient proof of its own authenticity; or that at the period when he translated it, it was so well known as not to admit of doubt or dispute. III. An European critic may say that Abu Taulib might have written the book itself in the Persian language, and have imposed it on the world as a translation from the royal Mogul author. This major Davy conceives to be impossible. He tells us, that the authors of the East neither sold their works to booksellers, published them by subscription, nor depended for support on the applause, the generosity, or the credulity of the public; but were patronized by princes, who rewarded their labours in proportion to their respective merits. It is almost incredible, therefore, that Abu-Taulib should have been content to be considered as the translator only of the very best history of Timour's life, when he was in reality himself the author of it; especially as the detection of the fraud would not only have ruined his fame but his fortunes. IV. The supposition that the History and Institutes of Timour lay for a long while unknown, is supported by the instance of the History of Sultaun Babour, which remained in obscurity till the middle of the reign of his grandson Acbur, and under circumstances which render it more difficult to account for the temporary concealment of this valuable work, than for that of Timour. V. The Oriental critics, who have the best opportunities of information, not only consider the History and Institutes as of the highest intrinsic value, but universally deem them the genuine works of Timour.

In proof of this the translator has related a very curious and interesting fact, which we shall give to the public in his own words.

‘Shaah Aulum, the present mogul, has a beautiful copy of the History and Institutes of Timour; which he holds in such esteem, and of which he is so exceedingly careful, that though he granted me the use of any other book in his possession, this he positively excepted by name, as a work so rare and valuable, that he could not trust it to the care of any person whatever.’

Such, in the translator’s opinion, are the arguments by which the authenticity of the Institutes may be defended. From us, at least, he has not to fear the imputation of credulity.

The work itself is divided into two books, the first of which bears the title of ‘Designs and Enterprises.’ In the original, indeed, this book followed the Institutes, of which the author considered it as a part. It is notwithstanding placed first in the edition, partly to give the reader, who knows but little of Timour’s exploits, some previous idea of his genius, abilities, and extraordinary actions; and partly because the simplicity of the narrative will, in the beginning, be better adapted to the use of those who are inclined to study the Persian language.

The second Book consists of a set of rules and precepts which this great conqueror composed for the use of his successors. These, as it is natural to imagine, will be found to constitute a code of military and civil regulations, at once highly curious and important. Indeed the whole work cannot fail to interest the attention, and to command the admiration, not only of the general and the statesman, but of the philosophical enquirer. To the two former it displays the means by which an obscure chieftain of an inconsiderable horde in Transoxiana, became the founder and governor of a mighty empire. To the latter it unfolds those hidden springs of action which guided this extraordinary character; at the same time that it describes many of those diversities of manners and customs, which distinguish mankind in different ages and countries. We have had occasion, in a preceding article of this Month’s Review,* to expatiate on this last mentioned advantage, which results from the translation of Oriental compositions, as well as on the probability that they will tend to diffuse the knowledge of the eastern languages among many who are now insensible to their beauties.

* See our observations on sir William Jones’s translation of the Moallakat.

The publication of Timour's Institutes was undertaken with this particular view; and indeed the merit of the execution seems to ensure its success. The original Persian is printed in a neat type, and with great correctness. The translation, which is conveniently placed on the opposite page, is as literal as is consistent with elegance; and the notes, which are evidently those of a man deeply read in eastern learning, contain much useful and entertaining information.

In order to convey to our readers some idea of the style and manner of this work, and of the political character of Timour, we have extracted the Twelve Maxims by which he regulated his own conduct, in all the affairs of government; and which, from a conviction of their use and importance, he has recommended to the attention of succeeding monarchs. These Maxims, however inconsistent some of them may be with the milder spirit of European policy, and however repugnant to the ideas of men who have long been accustomed to the blessings of a limited monarchy; are, nevertheless, well calculated to secure that profound respect, and to enforce that implicit obedience, essential not only to the safety, but even to the existence of the absolute and despotic governments of the East.

' I regulated my conduct by Twelve certain Maxims: and by them I seated myself firmly on the throne of empire. And from experience it is known unto me, that every prince who adhereth not to these Twelve Maxims, shall reap little advantage from his dominion and regal station.

' First. It is necessary that his words and his actions be his own. That is to say, that his soldiers and his subjects may know that what the king sayeth and doeth, he sayeth and doeth from himself; and that no other person hath influence therein.

' Therefore it is requisite that a king be not so guided by the conduct and the counsels of others, as to make them his associates in his regal authority. For although he be obliged to hear good advice from all, yet he must not to that degree attend unto them, as to enable them by their measures and their counsels to become his equals, and in the end his superiors, in the concerns of his government.

' Secondly. It is necessary to a king that he adhere to justice in all his actions, and that he receive into his service ministers who are just and virtuous. For if a king be guilty of oppression, an upright minister may counteract the evil thereof. But if the minister be unjust and cruel, it shall speedily come to pass, that the edifice of his master's power and dominion shall be levelled with the earth.

' Thirdly. In his injunctions, and in his prohibitions, he must act with resolution and with firmness. And he himself

must issue his royal commands, that no one may have the temerity or the power to interpose, to alter, or to corrupt them.

‘Fourthly. He must be firm and constant in all his determinations. That is to say, on whatever plan or enterprize he shall resolve, he must not alter his resolution, nor withdraw his hand from that enterprize, until he hath brought it to a fortunate conclusion.

‘The Fifth is the spirit of command. For whatever command he giveth, it is necessary that that command should be obeyed; that no one should have the power to act in opposition thereto, even though inconvenience or mischief should be the expected consequence of that command.

‘Sixthly; (for from hence proceedeth security and power) he must not trust the concerns of his government to others, nor deliver over the reins of his authority into the hands of a servant: for the world is full of treachery, and hath many lovers; and it may soon come to pass that the powerful servant shall aspire to regal dignity, and seat himself on the throne of his master.

‘Seventhly. On the affairs of his government he must listen to the opinions of his servants: those which are good, he must lay up in the treasury of his heart, and call them forth into action at their proper seasons.

‘Eighthly. In the concerns of dominion, and in those things which relate to his subjects and his soldiers, he must not act by the assistance and the advice of others. If his vizzeers or his ameers speak unto him concerning any one, whether that which they say be good, or whether it be evil, let him hearken to them; but in forming his determination thereon let him be cautious and circumspect, until the truth be apparent unto him.

‘Ninthly. It is necessary that the majesty of his dominion be so impressed on the hearts of his soldiers and his subjects, that none shall dare to disobey his orders and commands, or to revolt from their duty and obedience to his royal authority.

‘Tenthly. What the king doeth he must do from himself; and he must adhere to that which he sayeth: for unto a prince there is nothing so valuable as a just veneration for his royal word. This word is unto him a family of princes, and a rich treasury; it maketh to him numerous subjects and powerful armies.

‘Eleventhly. In the affairs of his government, and in the issuing forth his orders and commands, he must consider himself as single and alone; nor must he associate any one with him in the administration of his authority.

‘Twelfthly. He must be acquainted with the manners and the dispositions of his favourites and his confidants. And he must act with caution and circumspection: for many are lovers of slander and of calumny, who may carry reports abroad, and communicate to the vizzeers and the ameers the words and the actions

actions of their prince. Thus it once happened unto me, at a time when several of those whom I admitted to my private council, proved to be the spies of my vizzeers and my omraus.

Subjoined to this work are some specimens of Persian Poetry. One of them, which is the Exordium of Jaumi's Poem, entitled Eusoof and Zoollikha, will, we doubt not, be perused with pleasure by our readers.

'In name of him whose name is the refuge of the souls of the faithful;

Whose praise is the ornament of eloquent tongues.

The most high, the only God, the eternal, the omniscient;

He who bestoweth strength and power on the feeble and the helpless.

The heavens he illumines with multitudes of constellations;

And with the human race he decorateth the earth, as with stars.

He who prepared the vaulted roof of the revolving sphere,

Who raised up the quadruple fold of the elements.

He who gives fragrance to the bosom of the rose-bud,

And ornamenteth the parent-shrub with wreaths of flowers.

He weaveth the garment for the brides of the spring,

And teacheth the graceful cypress to erect his head on the border of the lake.

He crowneth with success the virtuous intention,

And humbleth the pride of the self-conceited.

He accompanies the solitude of those who watch the midnight taper;

He passeth the day with the children of affliction.

From the sea of his bounty issues the vernal cloud,

Which waters alike the thorn and the jessamine.

From the repository of his beneficence proceeds the autumnal gale,

Which bespangles with gold the carpet of the garden.

It is his presence that enflameth the orb of day,

From whence every atom derives its light.

Should he hide his countenance from the two great luminaries of the world,

Their mighty spheres would descend quick into the area of annihilation.

From the vault of heaven to the centre of the earth,

Which ever way we direct our thought and imagination;

Whether we descend, or hasten upwards,

We shall not discover one atom uninfluenced by his power.

Wisdom is confounded in the contemplation of his essence;

The investigation of his ways exceeds the powers of man.

The angels blush at their want of comprehension;

And the heavens are astonished at their own motion.'

Of the two remaining specimens, one is a Prayer directed by the Bramins to be offered up to the Supreme Being; written

ten originally in the Sanscrit language, and translated by C. W. Boughton Rouse, Esq. from a Persian Version of Dara Shekoo, a Son of Shah Jehan, Emperor of Hindostan. The other is a Description of Ruder, or the Supreme Being, taken from a sacred book, entitled the Atherbun Bede.

These specimens professor White intended to have introduced by an essay on the utility and importance of the Persian language, and by a proposal for establishing a Persian professorship in the University of Oxford; but having since seen a pamphlet, written some years ago by governor Hastings, and directed to the same object, he thought it unnecessary to prosecute his design. He has however laid before the public a letter, communicated to him by Mr. Davy, on the importance of the Persian language, for transacting the company's affairs in India. The arguments used in this Letter are sensible and conclusive; and merit particular attention, at a time when our territorial and commercial interests in the eastern world are in so distracted a state.

On the whole, the translator and the editor of the Institutes of Timour are deserving our commendations; and we are of opinion, that the learned world in general, as well as the student of the Persian language in particular, is indebted to them for the publication before us.

The History of Modern Europe. Part II. From the Peace of Westphalia, in 1648, to the Peace of Paris, in 1763. With a View of the Progress of Society during the present Century. In a Series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son. Two Vols. 8vo. 12s. in Boards. Robinson.

IN our account of the preceding part of this History * we informed our readers, that the idea of the work was suggested by the earl of Chesterfield's Letters to his son, on the study of Modern History. By the title which the work originally received, and indeed still retains, it is said to have been written in a Series of Letters from a Nobleman to his Son. But we now find, from a dedication to the duke of Bedford, that the author is Mr. Russell. It always affords us pleasure when a writer, who has merited approbation in an assumed character, meets with so much encouragement from the public as to lay aside the mask under which he had at first concealed himself. Regardless of the venial deception, we congratulate him on the acknowledgment of his personal

* See Crit. Rev. vol. xlvii. p. 346, &c.

identity; for whether patrician or plebeian, we estimate his literary rank by the standard of abilities alone.

The present History, as was before observed, commences with the fall of the Roman empire, and the settlement of the barbarians; respecting which great revolutions, the author, in the first letter, treated of the moral and political causes. In reciting the earlier and less interesting parts of the narrative, he very properly restricted himself to a faithful and clear abridgement of occurrences; but, in proportion as the subject became more important, he extended the bounds of elucidation; and he traced the progress of society in Europe, from the settlement of the modern nations.

The first Letter, in the volumes now before us, contains the history of England and Ireland, from the accession of James I. to the murder of sir Thomas Overbury, and the fall of Somerset; comprising a period of about twelve years; and the second Letter recites the history of England and Scotland, from the rise of Buckingham to the death of James I. In illustrating the events of this period, the author discovers his attention towards enriching the narrative with such information as is worthy of notice.

‘Divines are divided in regard to the government of the primitive church. It appears, however, to have been that of the most perfect equality among the Christian teachers, who were distinguished by the name of presbyters; an appellation expressive of their gravity and wisdom, as well as of their age. But the most perfect equality of freedom requires the directing hand of a superior magistrate. Soon made sensible of this by experience, the primitive Christians were induced to chuse one of the wisest and most holy among their presbyters, to execute the duties of an ecclesiastical governor; and, in order to avoid the trouble and confusion of annual or occasional elections, his office was during life, unless in cases of degradation on account of irregularity of conduct. His jurisdiction consisted in the administration of the sacraments and discipline of the church; in the superintendency of religious ceremonies, which imperceptibly increased in number and variety; in the consecration of Christian teachers, to whom the ecclesiastical governor or bishop assigned their respective functions; in the management of the public funds, and in the determination of all such differences as the faithful were unwilling to expose to the heathen world. Hence the origin of the episcopal hierarchy, which rose to such an enormous height under the Christian emperors and Roman pontiffs.’

The next Letter recites the affairs of England, from the accession of Charles I. to the assassination of the Duke of

Buck-

Buckingham; and the fourth treats of England and Scotland, from the assassination of Buckingham to the execution of the earl of Strafford.—From the contents of these letters, it might be imagined, that the author had left a chasm in the history of Ireland, from the fall of Somerset to the execution of Strafford; and in that of Scotland, from the death of James I. to the assassination of the duke of Buckingham: but he has in reality connected, in his narrative, the history of both kingdoms, by means of anticipation and retrospection; and thus preserved, unbroken, the chain of events.

After treating, in the sixth Letter, of Great Britain and Ireland, from the commencement of the civil war to the battle of Naseby; and in the seventh, of England from the battle of Naseby to the death of Charles I. the author, in the eighth Letter, takes a general view of the European continent, from the peace of Westphalia, in 1648, to the peace of Oliva, in 1660. He then recites the history of the commonwealth of England, to the death of Cromwell; with an account of Scotland, Ireland, and Holland; giving afterwards a detail of the commonwealth of England, from the death of the protector to the restoration of the monarchy. In the eleventh Letter, we meet with an account of the progress of navigation, commerce, and colonization, from the beginning of the sixteenth to the middle of the seventeenth century. In the twelfth Letter the author again takes a general view of the affairs of Europe, with a particular account of those of England, from the restoration of Charles II. to the triple alliance, in 1688. But it is proper that we present our readers with another specimen of the work; and this we shall therefore give from the beginning of the Letter last mentioned.

• No prince ever had it more in his power to have rendered himself the idol of his people, and his people great, flourishing, and happy, than Charles II. of England. They had generously restored him to the regal dignity, without imposing any new limitations on his prerogative; but their late violences, and the torrent of blood which had been shed, too strongly demonstrated their dread of popery, and their hatred of arbitrary sway, to permit a supposition, that they would ever tamely suffer any trespass on their civil or religious liberties. If destitute of the sense of justice or gratitude, the imprudences of his grandfather, the fatal catastrophe of his father, and ten years of exclusion, exile, and adversity, were surely sufficient to have taught him moderation; while the warm expressions of loyalty and attachment, which every where saluted his ears, demanded his most affectionate regard.

• With

* With loyalty, mirth and gaiety returned. That gloom, which had so long overspread the island, gradually disappeared with those fanatical opinions that produced it. And if the king had made a proper use of his political situation, and of those natural and acquired talents, which he so abundantly possessed, he might have held, with a high hand, the balance of Europe, and at the same time have restored the English nation (to use the memorable words of my lord Clarendon) to its primitive temper and integrity; to "its old good manners, its old good humour, and its old good nature." But an infatuated desire of governing without controul, and also of changing the religion of the two kingdoms, accompanied with a wasteful prodigality, which nothing could supply, lost him by degrees the hearts of his subjects, as we shall soon have occasion to see, and instead of the arbiter of Europe, made him a pensioner of France.

Charles was thirty years of age, when he ascended the throne of his ancestors; and, considering his adverse fortune, and the opportunities he had enjoyed of mingling with the world, might have been supposed to be past the levities of youth and the intemperance of appetite. But being endowed with a strong constitution and a great flow of spirits, with a manly figure and an engaging manner, animal love was still his predominant passion, and amusement his chief occupation. He was not, however, incapable of application to business, nor unacquainted with affairs either foreign or domestic; but having been accustomed, during his exile, to live among his courtiers rather as a companion than a monarch, he loved to indulge, even upon the throne, in the pleasures of disengaged society, as well as of unrestrained gallantry, and hated every thing that interfered with those favourite avocations. His example was contagious; a gross sensuality infected the court; and prodigality, debauchery, and irreligion, became the characteristics of the younger and more fashionable part of the nation.

The king himself, who appears to have been little under the influence of either moral or religious principles, conscious of his own irregularities, could easily forgive the deviations of others, and admit an excuse for any system of opinions. Hence he gained the profligate by indulgence, at the same time that he knew to flatter, by attentions, the pride of religion and virtue. This accommodating character, which through his whole reign was Charles's chief support, at first raised the highest idea of his judgment and impartiality, from the choice that he made of his servants. Without regard to former distinctions, he admitted into his council the most eminent men of all parties: the presbyterians equally with the royalists shared this honour. The earl of Manchester was appointed lord chamberlain, and lord Say privy-seal. Calamy and Baxter, presbyterian clergymen, were even among the number of the king's

king's chaplains. Nor was he less impartial in the distribution of honours. Admiral Montague was not only created earl of Sandwich, and Monk duke of Albemarle, promotions that might have been expected: Annesley was created earl of Anglesey; Ashley Cooper, lord Ashley; and Denzil Hollis, lord Hollis.

Whatever might be the king's motive for such a conduct, whether a desire of lasting popularity, or of serving a temporary purpose, it must be allowed to have been truly political, as it contributed not only to banish the remembrance of past animosities, but to attach the leaders of the presbyterians; who, besides having a principal share in the restoration, were formidable by their numbers, as well as by their property, and declared enemies to the independents and republicans. But the choice which Charles made of his principal ministers, above all other things, prognosticated future happiness and tranquillity, and gave particular pleasure to the real friends of the constitution. Sir Edward Hyde, created earl of Clarendon, and who had been bred to the law, was made lord chancellor. He possessed great talents, was indefatigable in business, and very fit for the place of prime-minister. The marquis, created duke of Ormond, less remarkable for his talents than his courtly accomplishments, his honour and his fidelity, was constituted steward of the household; the earl of Southampton, a man of abilities and integrity, was appointed lord treasurer, and sir Edward Nicholas and Mr. Morrice secretaries of state. They were both men of learning and virtue, but little acquainted with foreign affairs.

These ministers entered into a free and open correspondence with the leading members of both houses; in consequence of which the convention, as it was hitherto called, by being summoned without the king's authority, received the name of a parliament; all juridical decrees, passed during the commonwealth or protectorship, were affirmed; and an act of indemnity was passed, conformable to the king's declaration from Breda. In that declaration Charles had wisely referred all exceptions to the parliament, which excluded all who had any immediate hand in the late king's death. Only six of the regicides, however, with four others, who had been abettors of their treason, were executed. The rest made their escape, were pardoned, or confined in different prisons. They all behaved with great firmness, and seemed to consider themselves as martyrs to their civil and religious principles.

The subject of the thirteenth Letter is the General View of the Affairs of Europe continued, from the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668, to the Peace of Nimeguen in 1678. The author then relates the history of England, from the popish plot, to the death of Charles II. with a retrospective view of the affairs of Scotland. His attention is thence called to the

line of general history, and to examine the progress of Lewis XIV. after which he details the affairs of Great Britain and Ireland, from the death of Charles II. to the Revolution in 1688; and, in the subsequent Letter, from this period until the assassination-plot, in 1696. The first of these volumes concludes with the Military Transactions on the Continent, from the beginning of the war that followed the League of Augsbourg to the Peace of Carlowitz, in 1699.

We have thus far detailed the contents of this history, that our readers might perceive how closely the author has pursued his subject through the different countries of Europe. By shifting the scene of the narrative so often, the work, no doubt, has a desultory appearance; but it is, for the same reason, accompanied with the advantage of affording a more perfect view than could otherwise be obtained, of the contemporary state of the several nations. By the light reflected from each, the whole is more distinctly illuminated; the concatenation of causes and effects is delineated with greater perspicuity; and the various motives of liberty, ambition, religion, and avarice, which actuate the affairs of men, are displayed in all their modes of operation.

In the second of these volumes the author traces, in the same manner, the history of the nations of Europe, from the end of the last century to the peace of Paris, in 1763. As he has carefully followed the best authorities, he has precluded us from the opportunity of discovering any misrepresentation; and we have the pleasure to find that his own reflections are apposite and judicious. Though we therefore think it unnecessary to lay before our readers any extract from the history, we shall subjoin a quotation from the last of the Letters, in which the author treats of the progress of society in Europe during the present century. After treating of the more northern nations, he thus proceeds:

‘The state of Germany, during the period under review, has perhaps undergone less change than any other country of equal extent, notwithstanding the frequent wars by which it has been shaken. These wars, by keeping up the ancient military habits, and the little intercourse the body of the people have with strangers, in time of peace, by reason of their inland situation, have preserved the general manners nearly the same as at the close of the last century, and the constitution of the empire has varied little since the peace of Westphalia. But agriculture, manufactures, and the mechanical arts, have in the course of the present century made great progress in many parts of Germany, especially in the dominions of his Prussian majesty; where the sciences and the polite arts also have flourished, under the protection of the illustrious Frederick, at
once

once the model of all that is elegant in letters or great in arms, the hero, statesman, historian, and philosopher. He has collected around him learned and ingenious men of all countries, whose liberal researches have been directed to the most valuable ends; and the generous spirit of the prince who at present fills the imperial throne, leaves us no room to doubt but the court of Vienna, long distinguished by its magnificence, will soon be as polished and enlightened as that of Berlin, of London, or Versailles. The German tongue is already adorned with works of imagination and sentiment, and the writings of Gessner, universally admired, have been translated into most modern languages.

The Swiss, so much distinguished by their love of liberty and of their country, and so long accustomed to sell their blood to the different powers of Europe, as other nations do the produce of their soil, having fertilized with culture their barren mountains, and acquired a knowledge of the necessary arts, instead of hiring themselves as soldiers to ambitious princes, pour forth their surplus of population upon more wealthy states in useful artificers and industrious manufacturers, and preserve at home their plain and simple manners, with their ancient military character: while the Dutch, formerly no less zealous in the cause of liberty, who acquired its full establishment by greater and more glorious efforts, and exhibited to mankind, for a century, the most perfect picture of a flourishing commonwealth, are now become degenerate and base, dead to all sense of a public interest, and to every generous sentiment of the soul. The passion for gain has extinguished among them the spirit of patriotism, the love of glory, the feelings of humanity, and even the sense of shame. A total want of principle prevails. Riches, which the stupid possessors want taste to convert to any pleasurable use, are equivalent, in the opinion of a Dutchman, to all the talents of the mind, and all the virtues of the heart. Avarice is the only passion, and wealth the only merit in Holland. In such a country, a sordid and selfish happiness may be found, like that which the miser enjoys in contemplating his gold; but there the liberal arts cannot thrive, and elegant manners are not there to be expected.

Italy has acquired new lustre in the present century from the splendid courts of Turin and Naples, where arts and literature have been encouraged. If painting and architecture have continued to decline, music, and even poetry, has greatly flourished in this classical country. Metastasio, perhaps inferior to none of her modern bards, has perfected her serious musical drama. This drama, very different from the old Italian opera, and from the masque, by rejecting marvellous incidents and allegorical personages, is certainly the finest vehicle for music that ever was invented, as the airs are all sung by real persons, strongly agitated by the passions they express;

express; whereas the chorus in the Greek tragedies, so much celebrated for its musical effects, was sung only by cool observers. But the Italian opera, in its most perfect state, has been represented as unnatural, as well as fantastical; though I think very unjustly. All our fine old ballads, which so exquisitely paint the tender passions, are supposed to be sung by persons under the immediate influence of those passions; and if the stage is allowed to be a picture of life, there can be nothing unnatural in an actor's imitating on it, what is believed to have happened in the great theatre of the world. In order however to do as little violence as possible to probability, Metastasio has contrived to throw chiefly into airs or odes, those parts of his musical tragedies, that would otherwise evaporate in soliloquy, in fond complainings, or in frantic ravings. The lyric measure is admirably adapted to the language of passion; and surely that mind must be very unmusical, which would prefer simple articulation to such enchanting melody, as generally communicates to the heart the soul-dissolving airs of Metastasio, especially when sung by a Millico or a Gabrielli.

'The state of society in Spain has been greatly improved under the princes of the house of Bourbon. A taste for agriculture, for arts, manufactures, letters, and even a passion for arms and enterprise, has been revived among the Spaniards. A similar taste is said to have extended itself to Portugal, since the expulsion of the Jesuits out of both those kingdoms. If this taste should ripen into a philosophic spirit, and break the fetters of superstition, we may perhaps behold a singular phenomenon in the history of nations; a great people, after the decline of empire and the corruption of manners, recovering their former consequence and character. Such a phenomenon would effectually overturn that political hypothesis, chiefly founded on the fate of the Roman empire, that states which have reached their utmost height, like the human body, must necessarily tend to decay, and either experience a total dissolution, or become so insignificant as to excite neither envy nor jealousy.

'In France, as I have already had occasion to shew, society attained its highest polish before the close of the last century. But the misfortunes which clouded the latter years of Lewis XIV. threw a gloom over the manners of the people, and a mystical religion became fashionable at court. Madam de Maintenon herself was deeply penetrated with this religion, as was the celebrated abbé Fenelon, preceptor to the duke of Burgundy, afterwards archbishop of Cambray, and author of the *Adventures of Telemachus*, one of the finest works of human imagination. The fervour spread, especially among the softer sex; and Racine, in compliance with the prevailing taste, wrote tragedies on sacred subjects. The court, however, resumed its gaiety under the regency of the duke of Orleans, notwithstanding the accumulated distress of the nation, occasioned

sioned by the Mississippi scheme and the disorders in the finances: and his libertine example, with that of his minister, the cardinal du Bois, introduced a total corruption of manners; a gross sensuality that scorned the veil of decency, an unprincipled levity that treated every thing sacred and respectable with derision, and a spirit of dissipation, which, amid the utmost poverty, prevailed during the greater part of the reign of Lewis XV.'

We observed, of the two preceding volumes of this work, that they contained a clear and faithful detail of the European history, since the fall of the Roman empire; and we have only to add, that Mr. Russell has availed himself of every important acquisition made to historical information by the latest writers of our own country. The work being written in a series of letters, has, in many places, the agreeable apostrophes of epistolary composition, without violating the elevation of style indispensable in history. Upon the whole, therefore, we consider it as a work which merits the attention of the public.

English Etymology; or, a Derivative Dictionary of the English Language. (Concluded, from p. 184.)

THE learned author introduces his work with a dissertation on the English language, and the use of etymology. In this disquisition he investigates the antiquity of the following languages, and the connection which the different nations and people, who spoke them, have had with this island: viz. 1. the Hebrew, or Phœnician; 2. the Greek; 3. the Latin, or Italian; 4. the Celtic, or French; 5. the Saxon, Teutonic, or German; 6. the Icelandic, and other northern dialects. But he thinks that the Greek has had the greatest share in constituting the basis of the English language.

To evince the great antiquity of the Greek he observes, that the kingdom of Sicyon was founded 2079 years before the Christian æra; and the kingdoms of Argos, Thebes, and Athens, not many centuries afterwards; that Homer is said to have lived 1000 or 900 years before Christ; and that the language, in which he wrote, must have subsisted for many ages, before it could have arrived at that perfection of style, that harmony of numbers, and that loftiness of expression, which are to be found in the writings of that poet.

'Now, says the author, let any one of our antiquaries, or etymologists, point out to us a period earlier than the taking of Troy, or than even the times of Homer, in which the Celtic, Gaulish, Welsh, Saxon, Teutonic, or Icelandic tongues, were spoken or written with greater elegance, purity, and perfection,

fection, than the Greek was at either of those early periods: nay, even though a manuscript might at any time hereafter be found, written in any one of those polite languages, and dated 500 years before Homer, still would the kingdom of Sicily have subsisted above 600 years before the date of such a manuscript.*

It may be asked: By what channel, and at what period can we suppose the Greek language to have made its way into Britain? In answer to this question, our author endeavours to shew, that the Phœnicians and the Greeks visited this country in early times; that the Druids, whose very name is Greek,† settled in Britain 2000 years before the Christian era; that Brutus came from Troy to Britain; that Bladud brought four Greek philosophers from Athens, and founded a university at Stamford‡; that temples were built in this country to Grecian deities, &c.

Let the channel or channels then, for there undoubtedly are many, through which the words of our modern English have been derived to us, be whatever they may, Roman, Gothic, Celtic, Saxon, Teutonic, or Icelandic, still, says he, it is the Greek *alone*, that is the true basis of the English tongue; for it matters not from whom we borrow any word, if those, from whom we borrowed it, borrowed it from those who borrowed from the Romans, who borrowed it from the Greeks; the Greek is the only radix of that word, notwithstanding the various dialects it may have passed through, before it came to be adopted by us. —

— It may be confidently asserted, that no person can thoroughly understand the power and energy of the English tongue, who does not trace it up to the Greek:—thus, for instance, every one knows the meaning of the following words, being part of a lady's dress, viz. her cap, handkerchief, apron, ruffles, lace, gown, and sacque; or the following, being part of the furniture of her work-basket, rapper, silk, thread, scissars, needles, pins:—thus every one knows the meaning of these expressions, the duce take it; such a thing is spick and span new:—every one knows the meaning of these words, bridle, saddle, stirrops, whip, boots, spurs, and journey; but does every one know the derivation of those words; and that all, and each of them are Greek; as will be found on consulting every one of them under their proper articles, among many hundreds more, in the compilation of the following work.

* Etiam apud Celtas quercus deriv dicta sit. Boch. Chan. i. 42.—Perhaps *druc*, and druid, may be derived from *drux*, ilex.

† This legendary story is related by John Harding, Chron. l. i. 25. who quotes, for his authority, Merlin Caledonius. Bale likewise records it, Cent. i. c. 12. and Pitts, p. 25, upon the same authority. Leland, in his account of Bladud, takes no notice of this improbable anecdote.

‘But there are many words in our language that continue to wear so strange and uncouth an appearance, as would require more than an Oedipus to develope and disentangle them from their present intricate and enigmatical disguises:—thus the expressions hot-cockles, scratch-cradle, link-boy, boggle-boe, haut-goût, bon-môt, kick-shaws, crutched-friers, and innumerable others, can only be explained by their etymology:—every one of which is Greek.

‘Indeed it is no wonder that our language should be constructed so much on the basis of the Greek tongue; for, notwithstanding we seem to have had a closer connection, and a more intimate acquaintance with the northern, than with either the southern or the eastern nations; yet this difficulty will presently be removed, when we consider that those very northern nations themselves, I mean the Goths, Vandals, Saxons, and Germans, had a much more early connection with the Greeks, than what is generally imagined: for Shering. p. 279. says, “magna tamen Gothis amicitia, et necessitudo cum Trojanis intervenerit, qui et Mysiam, Phrygiæ partem Troadi conterminam, in suam potestatem tempore belli Trojani redelegerunt: Telephus enim, Gothorum in Mysiâ rex, Astyocham, Priami forem, uxorem duxit; Eurypylusque filius ejus, in bello illo cecidit:”—and again, in p. 288, he observes, “artes et superstitiones istas magicas, Wodenus, ut verisimile est, à Græcis, aliisque in Asiâ, Africâ, et Europâ circumjacentibus populis, comparavit.”

It is *probable* that the Goths, the Saxons, the Germans, the Britons, and other ancient nations, derived many of their words from an intercourse with the Greeks, in some remote period; and it is certain, that our ancestors have enriched their language with a great variety of terms from the Greek writers in theology, poetry, philosophy, history, rhetoric, oratory, physic, botany, geography, astronomy, and all other arts and sciences. But it is not so very evident, ‘that the Greek *alone* is the true basis of the English tongue.’ The Greek differs from the English in the number and order of the letters; and more particularly in the declensions of nouns and adjectives; in the use and application of the genders; and, above all, in the conjugations of verbs. In English, all the variations of the original form of the verb are only seven or eight: as know, knowest, knoweth or knows, knew, knewest, knowing, known: whereas in Greek they amount to four hundred and fifty, or five hundred.

In the early migrations of mankind, there can be no doubt, but that many tribes pursued their course from Ararat or Shinar, through Sarmatia, Scandinavia, and the northern parts of Germany; and it seems very natural to suppose, that the first inhabitants of this country, and the Anglo-Saxons,

Saxons, were some of *those* emigrants; who certainly had a language as early as the people of Sicyon, Argos, Athens, or any other nation.

We are therefore inclined to consider the northern languages of Europe, as sister dialects, descended from Oriental parents, and not ultimately derived from the Greek. With respect to the English, it must be observed, that it was, in early ages, like every other tongue, extremely defective*. In a long course of time it has been so mixed, altered, enlarged, and refined, that it is as much impossible to ascertain the source from which it originally flowed, as it would be to trace the water of the Thames to its fountain-head. It has received innumerable additions from a thousand different quarters; and, in many cases, all that an etymologist can perform, is to investigate those collateral dialects, from which a word is immediately derived. But if he can trace it with any degree of certainty and precision, in any of the Oriental languages, so far, it may be presumed, he advances towards its original source; and his attempt is laudable. The word *pyramid* has been usually derived from πυρ, gen. πυρός, fire; because a pyramid resembles the conical form of a rising flame. But the first syllable of pyramis is long, and the first of πυρός, fire, is short; our author therefore rejects this etymology, and supposes, with Vossius and others, that pyramis is derived from πυρός, wheat: not that pyramids were ever intended for granaries, but mistaken for granaries by the Greeks who visited Egypt, and knew the fruitfulness of that country in corn.

Herodotus, l. ii. c. 143. says: *πυραμὶς ἐστὶ κατ' Ἑλλάδα γλωσσάν, καλὸς καγαθός*: *Pyramis cum expōitur in lingua*

* Thus, for instance, our Saxon ancestors had not names in their own tongue for several things; that is, they had the things, but they had no appellations for them, and therefore were forced to express their meaning by a circumlocution, which though some may admire on account of the significancy of the composition, yet certainly such modes of expression betray at the same time great poverty of language; as for example, our Saxon ancestors had *GRAPES*; but, having no name for them, they were obliged to call them *wine berries*: they likewise had *OLIVES*; but, having no name for them, they were obliged to call them *band-shoes*; as the High Dutch do to this day: and, to mention only one more, they had the article of *BUTTER* among their delicacies; but having no name for it, they politely called it *kuosmeer*, i. e. *cow-smeer*, or that unguent which the cow afforded, and which they *smeered* on their bread.

For *kuosmeer*, see Casaub. de quatuor linguis, cum notis Cl. Somneri ad verba veteris Germanica, p. 13. There are many other compound words in the German tongue, which may seem a little uncouth to an Englishman: as *zimmermann*, or timber-man, a carpenter; *sing-vogel*, or sing-fowl, a singing bird; *horn-mann*, a cuckold; *buch-händler*, a bookseller; *singer-but*, or singer-hat, a thimble, &c.

Græcâ, est καλὸς καγαθὸς, fortis et bonus. Perizonius therefore supposes that these buildings were called pyramids by the Egyptians, because they were 'arces, certè thesauri, et sepulchra, illustrissimorum hominum *.'—The word is most probably an Egyptian term, and not originally formed by the Greeks, merely in consequence of a gross mistake.

'EUROPA, says our author, seems to be a contraction of terra euro opposita; and consequently derived from εὐρος, eurus, the east, and ὦ, prono, positus, oppositus: that is, a region opposite to the east.' The learned Dr. Hyde supposes it to be derived from עֶרֶב, erôp, locus *vesperascendi* ubi sol occidit, vel, si verbum cedere liceat, *europat*.

CAMEL is deduced from καμηλός: but καμηλός is derived from גִּמֶל, gimel.

WINE is derived from οἶνος; but οἶνος may be naturally deduced from יַיִן, iin.

ALPS ought perhaps to be traced up to the Syrian or Phœnician word אֲלֶבֶן, alben, albescere, denoting mountains white with snow.

MILE, μίλιον, the distance of a thousand paces. The word μίλιον, our author observes, is only a feigned word for χίλια, a thousand: but it is probably derived from מִיל, Arab. a mile, or a sabbath day's journey.

SACK, said to come from σακκος, saccus, a sack or bag, is ultimately derived from שַׂק, saq.

HORN, derived from κέρας, cornu, is more properly deduced from קֶרֶן, qern.

HAUTBOIS, aubois, or hautboy, seems to be taken from אֲבוּבָא, Chald. and Syr. abuba. fistula. Hence, likewise, ambubaie, minstrels, in Horace. Sch. Lex.

LIGHT is probably derived from לֵהט, leet.

MASK seems to be derived מַסְכָּה, masce, a covering. Vid. מַסְכָּה, in Lex. Schind.

PARSE, is the Hebrew word פָּרַשׁ, pars, exposuit.

SYRUP, derived by our author from Συριας ὄψος, Syrius succus, comes originally from שֵׁרֵב, serub, potavit, or שֵׁרֵבָה, potio medicinalis, syrup. hence shrub.

These few examples may serve to shew, what we have before intimated, that there is a general affinity between the English language and the Oriental dialects; that consequently our ancestors, among other emigrants, came from the East; and that it would very frequently be an erroneous process to fetch our etymologies from the Greek, as that language does

* Ægypt. Orig. c. 21.

not appear to be the parent, but only a sister dialect of the other European languages.

We shall now lay before our readers some extracts from this learned work.

'ROBBIN-red-breast, at first sight, might be supposed to derive from *Robert*; but originates à *rubeo pectore*, i. e. ab *erythraeo*, *ruher*, *rubinus*, degenerated into *robbin*, à *rubigine tinctum*; the *rusty redness on his breast*.'

This is ingenious: yet *Robin* is perhaps nothing more than an arbitrary appellation, imposed by the vulgar, like jack-daw, tom-tit, and poll-parrot.

'LOU-VRE; "Anglis, plerisque gentibus Europæis," says Junius, "dicitur Regia, quæ est Lutetiæ Parisiorum: vox est Franco-Gallica; siquidem in perverusto gl. Latino-Theotisco *castellam* exponitur *leovar*, *leodward*, vel *liudward*; q. d. *populi tutela*:"—thus has this great and learned etymol. pointed out to us the true deriv. of this word, which he has traced, and hunted through all the barbarous, and more than semi-barbarous words of the North; not considering that those very northern tongues were but so many horrid distortions, contractions, and disfigurations of the Greek and Roman languages: thus, *louvre*, and *leovar*, and *leodward*, and *liudward*, if they signify *populi tutela*, are no more than savage barbarisms of *Λαος*, *λαα* unde *lou*: and *Ουε-ος*, *custos*; contracted to *var*, and *ward*; and then compounded thus, *Λα-ουε*, and transposed to *Λου-αε*, unde *louvre*, to signify *the guard*, *the ward of the people*, or *subjects*; because it is *a strong castle in Paris*; perhaps in the nature of the Tower in London.

NIGHT-MARE.—Our author having shewn, that this expression can have no connection with the idea of a horse or a mare, produces the following quotation from Sheringham.

"*Mara* (from whence no doubt our *night-mare* is derived) spectrum erat immane, noctu præcipue vires exercens, qui dormientes aggredi, atque opprimere solebat: nos Wan, Saxonice *morbum* in genere, et in specie *Ephialtem* significare supra diximus; (but this seems to come from *mæror*: Greek) vocabulum ab hoc spectro sumptum videtur; et forte peculiarem hunc morbum duntaxat notare:"—this appellation therefore has arisen intirely from the ancient Gothic superstition; for we here find, that this *mara* was reckoned among the most dreadful of their spectres, from its afflicting people *in the night*, while they were *asleep*."

It may be just worthy of observation, that *מַרְדּוּ*, signifies *dæmon*.

NEIF; "Iceland, *neifi*; Anglo-boreales *neive*; *pugnus*: Lye:"—*the fist*: Shakspeare has made that odd fantastic character *Pistol* (who is always talking in a high-flown, bombast manner, and

and in obsolete phrases) use this word in the second part of Hen. IV. act ii. sc. 10, where he is introduced in a squabbling scene between Doll Tearsheet and him; towards the close of which, Falstaff says,

— Pistol, I would be quiet.

P. Sweet knight, I kiss thy *neif*: —

which Pope has derived from *nativa* (it bears that sense indeed in the old law Latin); i. e. *a woman slave, who is born in one's house*; as if it meant that Pistol would kiss Falstaff's domestic mistress Doll: but Theobald has very properly explained it by, *I kiss thy fist*; i. e. *I kiss your hand, I ask your pardon for making this disturbance, and will henceforth be quiet.*

‘MYRMAIDS; *Myrmæ, pisces* (grandiores) qui vocantur *Megamyræ*, etiam vocari *Myrmæ*, scribit Athenæus: these words *Myrmæ* and *Myrmæ*, have been rather unfortunate for the painters: — in Greek they signify no more than *a species of large fish*; but when the word *Myrmæ* comes into the idea of a painter, he immediately gives us that strange compound figure of a *myrmaid*, i. e. of a beautiful woman, or young MAID, naked to the waist, and there joined to the tail of a FISH, to signify *a sea-maid*, or *sea-woman*; copying, perhaps, the description which Virgil has given us of Scylla,

Prima hominis facies, et pulchro pectore virgo
Pube tenus; postrema immani corpore pristinæ,
Delphinum caudas utero commissa luporum.

Æn. III. 426.

such preposterous compositions of fancy, Horace has very justly censured, in the beginning of his Art of Poetry;

Humano capiti cervicem pictor equinam
Jungere si velit, et varias inducere plumas
Undique collatis membris, et turpiter atram
Definit in piscem mulier formosa superne;
Spectatum admissi, risum teneatis amici?

but the original word *Myrmæ*, gives us no idea of a MAID, and a FISH, or any such strange composition.

‘EN-NUI: Cleland, Voc. 165, has, with his usual sagacity, and with a great deal of trouble, as he himself acknowledges, traced out the true meaning, and deriv. of this word; for, after he had long despaired of discovering the origin of it, mere chance, he says, offered to him, what he took to be the genuine one: — “in an old French book I met,” says he, “with a passage, where the author, speaking of a company that had fate up late, makes use of this expression, *Pennuit les avoit gagné*; by the context of which it was plain he meant, that the common influence of *the night*, in bringing on *heaviness*, and *yawning*, had come upon them: the proper sense is totally antiquated; but the figurative remains in full currency to this day: — thus has this great etymologist contented himself with being the first discoverer of the true source of this word; and so far merits our commendation: — but he ought to have gone a little farther, and then he would have discovered, that this

French

French is purely a Greek deriv. ; for *nuit*, and the verb *ennuyer*, which is plainly formed from *ennui*, are evidently derived à *nox*, i.e. à *Nuſ*, *nox* ; *the night* ; meaning *a late hour* ; which usually brings on *weariness, yawning, and gaping.*

By these extracts the reader will perceive, that our learned and industrious etymologist has not only investigated the radical meaning of many obscure and almost unintelligible words ; but has likewise exploded many vulgar errors, and illustrated many passages in our ancient writers.

At the conclusion, he has subjoined a chronological table of the most remarkable events recorded in ancient and modern history, many of which are calculated to throw a light upon the most interesting articles in the preceding dictionary.

Though we cannot pretend to assert, that he has traced every word to its original source, yet he has certainly collected an infinite variety of curious observations, and produced a work, which cannot but be acceptable to those who have a taste for etymological disquisitions, and a desire to understand their native language.

Musical and Poetical Relicks of the Welsh Bards: preserved by Tradition, and authentic Manuscripts, from remote Antiquity, never before published. By Edward Jones. Folio. 1l. 1s.
Sold by the Author.

THE poetry and music of Wales have suffered irreparable injuries by the invasion of the Romans, the barbarous incursions of the Saxons, the Danes, and the Normans ; by the emigrations of the Britons to Armorica, the frequent destruction of manuscripts, and the massacres of the clergy and the bards. Yet, notwithstanding these devastations, some poetical and musical compositions of the ancient Britons have been preserved, either in separate publications, in manuscript, or by tradition. However, as in this obscure and precarious state, they were in danger of being lost, or were in a great measure unknown to the public, the learned and ingenious Mr. Jones, with a laudable zeal for the interest of polite literature, and the honour of his country, has collected them into one volume, and translated the poetical part into English.

In order to throw a light upon these ancient compositions, he has given us an historical account of the bards, their poetry, their music, and their musical instruments.

‘There is, says he, no living nation that can produce works of so remote antiquity, and at the same time, of such unimpeached authority as the Welsh. Our historians, ever desirous to trace their subject to the utmost point of remote antiquity, have derived the name and profession of the bards from Bardus, fifth king of Britain, who began his reign in the year of the

world 2082. Berofus says, he reigned over the Celts, and was famous for the invention of poetry and music. Perizonius, as Vitus asserts, called the music of Bardus "not every music, but that which is poetical." Bardus however, if other accounts may be credited, was not the first who cultivated the sister arts in this island. Blegored, king of Britain, who died in the year of the world 2069, was called, for his extraordinary skill in vocal and instrumental music, the god of harmony.*

On this passage we shall take the liberty to make two or three cursory observations. Bardus is called by Berofus, king of the Celts, p. 57. edit. 1545. But this Berofus is only the fabulous and fictitious Berofus of Annii Viterbensis. Upon the same false authority he is mentioned by Bale, Cent. 1, 5, who calls him the fifth king of the *Celts*; and places the beginning of his reign in the year of the world 2069.—This Vitus, whom our author quotes, was Richard White, who lived in the beginning of the last century, and published nine books of British History, entitled *Historia Britannia Insulae ad an. Ch. 800*, Duaci [Douay] 1602.—Who Perizonius was, we do not know, not having White's book at hand. The celebrated Perizonius, author of the *Egyptian Antiquities*, was not born till the year 1651.—Blegored or Blegabred is not supposed to have lived till the year of the world 3858, many ages *after* Bardus. Geoffrey of Monmouth does not call him the god of "harmony," but only says, that he seemed worthy of the title of the god of jesters, or merry fellows, "*ut deus jocularum videretur* *."

Our author proceeds:—'Of the bards, and of their poetry and music, at those remote periods, little more than a faint tradition is preserved; and that little we either derive from the poetical and fabulous remains of the British annals, or glean, wherever it is scattered over the wider fields of Roman history. There is no account indeed of Britain, in any writer preceding Cæsar;—but those nations could not surely be rude in the construction of their poetry and music, among whom, as Cæsar declares, the supremacy and omnipotence of the gods were acknowledged, the immortality and transmigration of the soul believed, opinions formed concerning the motion of the planets, and the dimensions of the world, and youth instructed in the nature and philosophy of things.——

'A fragment of Posidonius, preserved by Athenæus, enables us to exhibit the only specimen of the genius of the bards, that can be ascribed, with certainty, to a higher date than the sixth century. Describing the wealth and magnificence of Luernius, Posidonius relates that, ambitious of popular favour, he frequently was borne over the plains in a chariot, scattering gold and silver among the myriads of Celts, who followed him.

On a day of banqueting and festivity, when he entertained with abundance of choice provisions, and a profusion of costly liquors, his innumerable attendants, a poet of the barbarians, arriving long after the rest, greeted him with singing the praise of his unrivalled bounty and exalted virtues, but lamented his own bad fortune in so late an arrival. Luernius, charmed with his song, called for a purse of gold, and threw it to the bard; who, animated with gratitude, renewed the encomium, and proclaimed, "that the track of his chariot wheels upon the earth was productive of wealth and blessings to mankind:"

Διότι τα ἔχον της γης, ἐφ' ἧς ἀρματηλαται, χρυσον καὶ ευεργεσίας ἀνθρώποις φερεῖ *.

The druids, expelled from Britain by the Roman legions, took refuge in Ireland and the isle of Man. In the sixth century, the golden age of Welsh poetry, the bards resumed the harp with unusual boldness, to animate their country's last successful struggle with the Saxons. Aneurin Gwawdrydd, called by his successors, the monarch of bards, has left us one of the noblest productions of that age, which is admirably translated by Mr. Grey.

The name of Taliesin or Teliesin, is well known. Leland, Bale, and other biographers, speak of him with the highest encomiums. As a specimen of his manner (if a translation can be considered as a specimen) we shall subjoin his description of a battle, fought about the year 548, by Goddeu, a king of North Britain, and Urien Reged, king of Cumbria, against Fflamddwyn, a Saxon general, supposed to be Ida, king of Northumberland. For the original and the notes, we must refer our readers to Mr. Jones's publication.

The battle of Argoed Llwyfain, translated by Mr. Whitehead.

' Morning rose: the issuing sun
Saw the dreadful fight begun:
And that sun's descending ray
Closed the battle, closed the day.
Fflamddwyn pour'd his rapid bands,
Legions four, o'er Reged's lands.
The numerous host from side to side
Spread destruction wild and wide,
From Argoed's summits, forest crown'd,
To steep Arfynydd's utmost bound.
Short their triumph, short their sway,
Born and ended with the day!

' Flush'd with conquest Fflamddwyn said,
Boastful at his army's head:
Strive not to oppose the stream,
Redeem your lands, your lives redeem.

Give me pledges, Fflamddwyn cried,
 Never, Urien's son replied
 Owen of the mighty stroke:
 Kindling as the hero spoke,
 Cenau, Coel's blooming heir
 Caught the flame, and grasp'd the spear.
 Shall Coel's issue pledges give
 To the insulting foe, and live?
 Never such be Britain's shame,
 Never, till this mangl'd frame
 Like some vanquish'd lion lie
 Drench'd in blood, and bleeding die.

' Day advanc'd: and ere the sun
 Reach'd the radiant point of noon,
 Urien came with fresh supplies.

" Rise, ye sons of Cumbria, rise,
 Spread your banners to the foe,
 Spread them on the mountain's brow,
 Lift your lances high in air,
 Friends and brothers of the war,
 Rush like torrents down the steep,
 Thro' the vales in myriads sweep.
 Fflamddwyn never can sustain
 The force of our united train."

' Havoc, havoc rag'd around,
 Many a carcase strew'd the ground:
 Ravens drank the purple flood,
 Raven plumes were dyed in blood.

Frighted crowds from place to place,
 Eager, hurrying, breathless, pale,
 Spread the news of their disgrace,
 Trembling as they told the tale.

These are Teliesin's rhimes,
 These shall live to distant times,
 And the bard's prophetic rage
 Animate a future age.

Child of sorrow, child of pain,
 Never may I smile again,
 If till all-subduing death
 Close these eyes, and stop this breath,
 Ever I forget to raise
 My grateful songs to Urien's praise!

The editor has produced several other poetical compositions of the sixth century; which are pregnant with fancy, and enthusiasm, and do honour to the nation that produced them.

' Foreigners, says Mr. Jones, who read them, will be obliged to soften some of those dark colours, in which they have usually painted our ancestors. The rays of genius that shone forth in the Britons, amid the gloom of the dark ages,

are more valuable in the eye of reason, and contribute more to their glory, than all the bloody trophies they erected.

‘The writings of these ancient bards deserve to be explored and published, not merely as sources of poetical and philosophical pleasure, but as stores of historical information. Their origin is not doubtful, like some venerable works, which, we have reason to fear, were drawn together from fabulous records, or vague tradition: these were composed on recent exploits, copied immediately from their subjects, and sent abroad among nations, that had acted or seen them. From a diligent investigation, and accurate editions of them, by learned Welshmen, many important advantages may be promised to the British history, which, supplied and improved from these copious fountains, would no longer disgust with incredible fables of giants and magicians; but engage, by a description of real events and true heroes. For early poetry has, in all countries, been known to give the fullest and most exact picture of life and manners.’

To what the author has observed, concerning ‘fabulous records and vague traditions,’ we may add, that he has very properly and very fairly obviated all suspicions relative to the authenticity of these poems, by publishing the original compositions. This is a duty which every editor, in similar cases, owes to the republic of letters; and he who refuses to give the world this reasonable satisfaction, is only fit to sail down the stream of time in company with Thomas Fœdrus, Curtius Inghiramius, and Annius of Viterbo.

Towards the close of the eleventh century, the great prince Gruffudd ap Cynan invited to Wales some of the best musicians of Ireland; and being partial to the music of that island, where he was born, and observing, with displeasure, the disorders and abuses of the Welsh bards, created a body of institutes for the amendment of their manners, and the correction of their art and practice.

The period, continues Mr. Jones, which interfered between the reign of Gruffudd, and that of the last prince, Llewelyn, is the brightest * in our annals. It abounds with perhaps the noblest monuments of genius as well as valour, of which the Welsh nation can boast. After the dissolution of the princely government in Wales, the bards might be said to rise under the influence of a baleful and malignant star. They were reduced to possess their sacred art in obscurity and sorrow. By the insurrection however in the reign of Henry IV. the martial spirit of the Awen or Welsh muse was revived, to celebrate the heroic enterprizes of the brave Glyndwr. Like him, the bards of his time were ‘irregular and wild;’ and,

* Was it brighter than the golden age?—Llewelyn was slain in 1282.

as the taper, glimmering in its socket, gives a sudden blaze before it is extinguished, so did they make one bright effort of their original and daring genius, which was then lost, and buried for ever, with their hero in the grave.—Of the poetical compositions of the bards at this period, the editor has preserved one, viz. an Ode to Owen Glendower, by his favourite bard Gruffudd Llwyd, which displays the genius of the author to great advantage; and is elegantly translated by the rev. Mr. Williams of Vron.

Having given us the history of the bards and some of their larger productions, the editor has subjoined a collection of the Welsh Pennillion, or epigrammatic stanzas and pastoral sonnets. These have been transmitted, from time immemorial to the present age, by oral tradition, and still are the domestic and colloquial poetry of the natives of Wales. The memorial verses which, in the time of Cæsar, were never committed to writing [*neque fas esse existimant, ea literis mandare, Cæs. lib. vi. 13.*] and which the druidical disciples employed so many years [*nonnulli annos vicenos*] were, Mr. Jones supposes, Pennillion, conveyed in that most ancient metre, called Englyn Milwr. We shall subjoin the first.

PENNILLION.

Tecca ei llun, a brasia ei llais,

Yw'r Delyn farnais

Newydd;

Ti a haeddit glôd am fod yn fwyn,

Tydi ydyw-liwyn

Llawenydd;

Te ddaw'r adan yn y man,

I diwnio dan

D' adenydd!

Beauteous in form the harp appears,

Its music charms our ravish'd ears;

Less varied strains awake the grove,

Fill'd with the notes of spring and love;

Hither the Muses oft shall throng

Inspire the theme, and swell the song!

The English reader need not despair of gaining some idea of the harmony of the foregoing Pennillion. To read Welsh, a right knowledge of the alphabet is all that is necessary; for (not going to a nicety) all the letters retain one invariable sound, which must be distinctly pronounced, as there are no mutes. Letters that are circumflexed must be pronounced long, as *bôn*, like the English bone; *bûn*, boon; *bîn*, been, &c.

C, as c English in *can*; but never soft as in *city*.

Ch,

Ch, as the Greek χ , properly pronounced. If, instead of touching the palate with the tip of the tongue to pronounce k, you touch it with the root, it will affect this sound.

Dd, as th English in *them*; that is, very soft; not hard, as in *thought*.

F, as v English.

Ff, as f and ff English.

G, as g in *God*, but never soft as in *genius*.

I, as i in *king*; and ee in *been*; but never as i in *fine*. *Fine*, according to the Welsh, would be pronounced *veenè*.

Ll, is l aspirated; and can be represented in English only by lh or llh.

Th, as th in *thought*; but never soft as in *them*.

U, as i in *bliss*, *this*, *it*, &c.

W, as oo in *good*.

Y, as u in *burn*, though in the last syllable of a word, and all monosyllables, except y, ydd, ym, yn, yr, ys, fy, dy, myn, it is like i in *fin*, *it*, &c. both its powers are nearly shewn in the word *sundry*, pronounced *syndry*.

The musical instruments, anciently used in Wales, are said to have been as different from those of other nations, as their music and poetry. These instruments were five in number, the telyn or harp; the crwth or crowd; the pibgorn or pipe; the tabwrdd or tabret; and the corn-buelin, cornet, or bugle horn. Of these the author has given a particular description, and a representation in a copper plate. A considerable part of this volume consists of the musical relicks of the Welsh bards. Some of these pieces bear such strong marks of natural simplicity, and of the general character of the bards; and, at the same time, so forcibly express the passion they were intended to excite, that we have no reason to question their authenticity. Others have a more modern air. The variations added to the ancient tunes for the harpsichord (an instrument formed from their harps) for the violin or flute, and the basses, we presume, are the productions of the ingenious editor.

An Authentic Narrative of the Dissensions and Debates in the Royal Society. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

AS the unhappy dissensions that have lately taken place in the Royal Society, have engaged a considerable share of the public attention, we shall take this opportunity of giving a brief and impartial account of their rise and progress, from the pamphlet before us, which appears to contain a faithful narrative of those proceedings; and is, besides, a well-written, liberal performance.

The

The office of corresponding secretary to the Society, had been held for some years by Dr. Hutton of Woolwich; a gentleman eminent for his mathematical and philosophical knowledge; and the duties of it, for ought that appears to the contrary, had been ably and punctually discharged; no imputation of negligence or inattention ever having been brought against him, previous to an attempt that was made to remove him from his office.

On the 20th of November the president summoned his council, and a resolution was passed, in which they unanimously concurred, with the exception only of Dr. Maskelyne and Mr. Maty, that it was expedient for the foreign secretary to reside constantly in London. This resolution being incompatible with Dr. Hutton's engagements, and the design of it being too obvious to be misunderstood, he came to the Society on the 27th of November, and resigned his place, in a speech that strongly spoke his feelings, and the sense he entertained of such an unmerited insult.

The manner in which Dr. Hutton was obliged to resign his office, was not more a matter of surprize and indignation to himself than to his particular friends, and many other members of the Society who were acquainted with his merits; and their surprize was the greater to find that the name of his friend Dr. Maskelyne, the astronomer royal, was omitted in the list of the intended council which were to be elected on the first of December following. From an obvious principle of equity, he had desired that Dr. Hutton might be heard in his own justification, before he was dismissed from his employment; and to this independent conduct they very naturally attributed the omission of his name in the new council; which suspicion appeared to be fully justified by their observing, that no other gentleman of eminence in the same branch of science, was substituted in his place.

Roused by these proceedings, it was determined that notice should be immediately taken of them; and accordingly, on the 11th of December, Mr. Poore proposed a vote of thanks to Dr. Hutton, for his having so ably and diligently discharged the duties of his late office. He was seconded by Mr. Maty, who, in the course of his speech, proved beyond a doubt, that the equivocal resolution of the council was meant for no other purpose than that which it produced.

The president, apparently much surprised at this unexpected motion, made some very strong attempts to stop debate entirely; not only for that time, but for ever. But in this he was over-ruled; and, after some contention, agreed that a committee should be appointed to enquire into the merits of the services for which Dr. Hutton was to be thanked. No
such

such committee however was ever formed; nor were any steps taken to give any opening to an enquiry. This being the case, Dr. Horsley urged the question, as it was originally put, and insisted that unless the president would support his charge of negligence, by allegations of particular instances, it would be exceedingly improper that a man of Dr. Hutton's character and abilities should retire from the service of the Society without their thanks. The business being thus again brought on, an attempt was made to get rid of it, by the previous question. But this was rejected by a majority of seven, the numbers being thirty-five and twenty-eight; and afterwards the main question was carried by five, the numbers being thirty and twenty-five.

As soon as the meeting broke up, the president summoned a council for the Wednesday following; who, notwithstanding Dr. Hutton had sent a written defence of himself to the secretary, and although no special matter of complaint was alleged against him, thought proper to declare that the resolution of the former council was a very wise one, and ought to be enforced. The sequel shewed how little these measures were calculated to restore the peace of the Society, which was the end the president and his committees professed to have in view. On the meeting of the Society the next day, Dr. Horsley moved that Dr. Hutton's defence, which the council had not only treated as nugatory, but as a full justification of the vote of the former council, should be read to the Society. The motion was introduced with a short speech, in which the proceedings of the council of the former day were treated with much freedom; and the injustice shewn to Dr. Hutton with great indignation.

This motion was seconded by Dr. Maskelyne, with great spirit; and, in the course of the debate it was observed, that though no direct charge had been brought against Dr. Hutton, yet a rumour had been propagated, that there had been three foreign letters which he had not answered. To this charge Dr. Hutton replied in a written defence, which was read to the Society; and, after having exculpated himself from every imputation of neglect in this particular, concluded with an observation, that must have struck every person very forcibly at the time, that his dismissal had come upon him without any previous admonition from the president.

As no regular reply was made to Dr. Hutton's defence, a motion was made by governor Pownall, and seconded by Mr. Glenie, 'That if Dr. Hutton hath been, in the opinion of any member of the Society, criminated, it is the opinion of the Society that he hath fully justified himself.' This motion

was

was carried by forty-nine against fifteen; and thus closed the business of the Society for the year 1783.

It was now but too evident that a storm was gathering, and the president judged it necessary to take some measures to dissipate it. The expedient which he embraced was to invite a select party to his own house; and, as it has since appeared, the design of this meeting was to bring forward some motion which should quash all enquiry into the president's official conduct, by a general vote of thanks or approbation. In the first week of January, a card was sent to all the members of the Society, requesting their attendance on the 12th of February following. The members which obeyed the summons were about one hundred and seventy; and of these, it was estimated that not more than seventy were of those who regularly attend the meetings of the Society.

As soon as the president had taken the chair, Mr. Anguish, the accomptant-general, declared that he had a motion to make relating to the private concerns of the Society, that might probably throw the assembly into debate, and for that reason he should move that no strangers should be admitted at the present meeting. This motion was seconded, and carried without a division. In the course of his speech, he observed that he should say nothing about the cause of the late debates and dissensions; but as the peaceful studies of the Society had been much disturbed, and the intent of them was evidently to displace the president, he should, in order to discover the sense of the Society upon these points, and to prevent all farther interruptions of business, move 'that this Society do approve of sir Joseph Banks for their president, and will support him.'

This motion was seconded by the Hon. Mr. Cavendish, and opposed by Mr. Poore, Mr. Baron Maseres, Dr. Horsley, Dr. Maskelyne, and Mr. Glenie, who all attempted to shew the arbitrary and unprecedented conduct of the president, by a number of pointed instances; and how extremely improper and absurd it would be to propose a formal panegyric upon a person who had not, by a retirement from his office, left any seal upon his services and character; but, on the contrary, had brought upon himself an obloquy, that required investigation, and not a blind obsequious approbation. In the course of their speeches, which are of considerable length, these gentlemen renewed the business of Dr. Hutton's unmerited dismissal from his office; complained of an infringement and invasion of the chartered rights of the Society; of the president's unjustifiable interference in the election of candidates;

7 of

of the policy invariably observed by him in the formation of his council; and many other particulars, all tending to shew that the freedom and independence of the Society had been violated, by an improper exertion of power on the part of the president.

Dr. Horsley brought forward the names of several gentlemen of respectable character, and of considerable eminence in different branches of science, who had been excluded from the Society, by the unconstitutional exertion of the influence of the chair. Mr. Maty likewise attempted to say a few words about this indecent interference of the president on the evening of election, in two or three instances that came immediately under his knowledge; but both he and Dr. Horsley were prevented from proceeding, by a continual clamour for the question, accompanied with a noise of sticks, &c. from the party brought down to support Mr. Anguish's motion. Lord Mulgrave, also, talked of some *broad hints* which it might be necessary for them to know, in order to perceive how highly their conduct was disapproved by the majority of the Society. Dr. Horsley, Dr. Maskelyne, and Mr. Glenie, replied to what lord Mulgrave threw out about *broad hints*, with proper spirit; and challenged the president and his friends to proceed to their utmost length. 'We shall have one remedy, at least, says Dr. Horsley, when all others fail, we can at last *secede*: I am united with a numerous and respectable band; and when the hour of secession comes, the president will be left with his feeble train of *amateurs*, and that toy upon the table*, the *ghost* of that Society in which Philosophy once reigned, and Newton presided as her minister.'—No reply being made to the charges brought against the president in these speeches, about eleven o'clock the previous question was put, when the numbers for it were fifty-nine, against it one hundred and six. After this the main question was put; the numbers against it were forty-two, and for it one hundred and nineteen; the president's own vote, in both cases, being included.

The language of the president's friends after this defeat, does not appear to have been that of conquerors; they were apprehensive, perhaps, that an opposition, which included so large a part of the effective members of the society, however it might be overpowered in the beginning, upon particular questions, might notwithstanding in the end prevail. The president, accordingly, affected to bear no ill will to the gentlemen who had been the most active to impeach his conduct: and it was even hinted that he would condescend to

* The Macc.

take hints for his future conduct from the complaints that had been made against him. To try the sincerity of these fair professions, the case of Dr. Hutton seemed to afford a proper experiment. As he had been absolved of the negligence that had been imputed to him, justice plainly required that he should be reinstated in the office from which his supposed delinquency had removed him.—Mr. Baron Maseres, on the twenty-ninth of January, gave notice of a motion he had to make upon this subject; but he was stopped by the president, who informed him that a statute had that day passed in council, by which every motion hereafter to be made, must be given in to the secretary of the society in writing, signed by six or more members. Mr. Maseres said that he had his motion in writing, and would soon get it signed. The purport of the motion was to request Dr. Hutton to resume his office, and twelve subscribers were soon found to sign it.

After the meeting of the fifth, a card was sent to all the members of the Society, requesting them, in the president's name, to attend on the twelfth, in the same terms which had been used on the former occasion. On the twelfth the assembly, far less numerous than on the eighth of January, met; and, after much debate, and a number of speeches made by Dr. Hutton's friends upon this occasion, about eleven o'clock the question was put, the affirmative balls being forty-seven, and the negative eighty-five.

After detailing these particulars at large, and giving the entire speeches of the gentlemen who supported the debates on both sides, the pamphlet before us closes with a summary account of a debate which took place on the twenty-sixth of February, upon two motions, the purport of which were to lay some restraint upon the president's undue interference in the election of candidates who might offer themselves to become fellows of the Society. The chief opposer of these motions was Mr. Anguish, who, notwithstanding he was very warmly and ably retorted upon by the gentlemen who supported them, had the satisfaction to find himself on the victorious side. Both questions were rejected by a great majority; the affirmative balls upon the first being only twenty-seven, the negative one hundred and fifteen; and upon the second the affirmative balls were twenty-three, and the negative ones one hundred and two.

We shall here close our account, with only observing that, since this pamphlet was written, Mr. Maty has resigned his office of secretary to the Society; and the president, in consequence of fresh altercations, has declared, that except Dr. Horsley and Mr. Maty are expelled the Society, he will no longer

longer sit in the chair. The event of this business the next meeting will shew. However this may be, we should be very happy to hear that the peace of the Society was once more firmly established. Their dissensions and debates serve no other purpose than that of bringing a body of men, once deemed respectable, into general contempt; and will, if continued, effectually destroy their reputation both at home and abroad. Should the present opposition be forced to a secession, the greater part of the mathematical and philosophical members will withdraw; and the Society can no longer answer the purpose of its first institution. With the merits of the cause, any farther than they appear to us from public rumour, and the pamphlet before us, we are unacquainted. The president is accused of arbitrary and unjustifiable conduct; and if the present narrative is, what it is asserted to be, an authentic one, we must join with the opposition in the same opinion. His opposing the election of mathematical candidates, of undoubted abilities, is certainly extremely improper; they are the pupils of the great and immortal Newton, who supported the precedence with untainted reputation, and was not only the boast of the Royal Society, but the glory of his country, and the ornament of human nature.

Considerations on the Law of Insolvency. With a Proposal for a Reform. By James Bland Burges, Esq. 8vo. 6s. Cadell.

THE author of the present work distinguishes insolvents into two classes; namely, unprivileged persons, and privileged persons, or bankrupts. It is to the former of these that his observations are chiefly confined. Mr. Burges begins with tracing, by historical deduction, the rise and progress of imprisonment for debt; with regard to which he contends, that it is not only repugnant to the principles of sound policy, but, in many cases, is even not warranted by the statutes on which it is supposed to be founded. The absolute illegality of imprisonment for debt, however, is a proposition exceedingly difficult to establish; for, though the practice may have been anciently unknown to the common law of England, and be not really supported, as the author endeavours to prove, by any positive statute, yet the uniform and recognized toleration of it, both by the legislature and the courts of justice, seems to confer upon it an unquestionable validity: so that notwithstanding we regret the severity of the expedient, we think it more reconcileable with the principles of jurisprudence than with those of humanity.

The author having, in the first part of the volume, developed the supposed illegality at great length, enters upon the second part of the Considerations, where, with equal closeness of investigation, he reviews the whole system of the bankrupt-laws, from their origin down to the present time. He then proceeds to the third and most important part of the enquiry, or that which treats of the reformation of the abuses and inconveniencies arising from the law as it now stands.

‘The present inconvenience, under which this country labours from the existing system of insolvency, is too obvious, even to the most incurious observer, to require much proof. It is one of those apparent facts which cannot be controverted. The daily consequences by which it is attended, bring home the alarming truth to the breast of every man. In every order of life we meet with ruin, with misery, and with fraud. The honest insolvent is permitted to be a victim, while the dishonest bankrupt triumphs in his uncorrected villainy, and insults those laws which he glories in having evaded. Our gaols are filled with thousands of individuals, born to freedom, and endowed with qualifications which might be applied to the advantage of the community. Whether these wretches are objects of compassion, whether they are virtuous or not, the state equally suffers from their confinement. No citizen, merely civilly and not criminally bad, ought to be accounted an useless member of the state. Be his endowments either mental or bodily, he may be brought to contribute to the general good. But in a gaol, not only no distinction is made between the virtuous and the profligate; between the honest and the fraudulent; but all its inhabitants are indiscriminately confined, and precluded from discharging the first of all duties, that of an industrious and useful citizen. After what has already been said upon this subject, to enlarge upon it here were tautology.

‘Nor is the present system of bankruptcy less liable to objection. We have seen that it took its rise from no settled principles. As new frauds presented themselves, as the existing laws were found insufficient, or as bad men became experienced to evade them, new statutes were made. The original defect however continued, and with it all its fatal, though inevitable consequences. The legislature in vain attempted to restrain abuses by partial and imperfect provisions; wherever they felt an immediate evil, they applied occasional remedy; they laboured to correct an effect, when they ought to have enquired into the cause. The consequence of this injudicious conduct has been such as might reasonably have been expected from it. The bankrupt laws, instead of deterring the iniquitous, or of intailing a certain punishment upon their offences, have been converted into a means of protection, and are become an engine of villainy and deceit. Fraudulent and de-
signing

signing men found little difficulty in evading a loose definition ; they cloathed their artifices in such a disguise, as to escape the hand of the law.' By degrees, the attempts of a few having been successful, others were encouraged to follow and to refine upon their example. The contagion became general. Bankruptcy was found not seldom to be more profitable than upright dealing. The fair trader must run great risks, and can become rich but by slow degrees. By a well-concerted bankruptcy, every possibility of hazard may be avoided, and a greater fortune may be acquired by one single stroke, than could, in the common course of business, have been accumulated after a life of honest industry. No sooner was this secret known, than fraudulent bankruptcies grew up into a regular system. There are found men, to whom fraud and perjury are familiar, who dare to profess it as a science. By the interposition of these abandoned characters, any man may securely violate the faith of commerce and the laws of his country. He may engage in an extensive trade ; he may rob his fellow citizens of their property : but the justice of the nation cannot reach him, surrounded with fabricated books and fictitious creditors. Secure of a majority both in number and in value, he may become in fact his own assignee ; he may appropriate to himself what proportion of his estate he pleases ; he may insure a certificate, and may again begin the world, cleared of all his debts, and affluent with the spoils of his honest and injured creditors.

' Such are the outlines of the inconveniencies attendant upon the present system of insolvency. Let us now enquire into the causes to which these enormities may probably be attributed.

' The first of these which attracts our notice is of a very general nature. As it is in fact the foundation of all those evils we have mentioned, it behoves us in the first place to afford it our attention. The cause to which we allude is the striking distinction made between debtors bankrupt and not bankrupt. This distinction, as we have seen, was first established in the year 1570, and has continued from that time uninterruptedly to the present. It arose from the anxious desire of the legislature to restrain fraud ; and it was taken up as the most obvious experiment which presented itself, though it certainly was not the most eligible which might have been adopted. The experience of more than two centuries has doubtless been sufficient to ascertain its propriety. If it has been productive of advantage, let that advantage be produced ; let us know how and where the community has been benefited by it. Has fraud been prevented ? has commerce been strengthened ? has credit, either public or private, been promoted ? has the number of bankruptcies decreased ? if these questions can be answered in the affirmative, then may we grant that such a distinction is

judicious. But, if the general voice of the public, if the repeated declarations of parliament, if the daily experience of mankind, and if every new publication of a Gazette, demonstrate the contrary, our predilection in favour of an established system must not be permitted to pervert our reason. On evidence so strong and so conclusive, we might perhaps be warranted in resting the question. But there are other arguments in favour of our proposition, not less forcible, though less generally obvious. Two of these are extremely material, and require some share of investigation.

A distinction of this nature is contradictory to the great principles of reason and natural law. In every kind of traffic, in every transfer of property, except in the case of gifts, there is a condition, either expressed or implied, for an adequate compensation. This condition takes place instantly, though its operation may be suspended, according to the agreement of the parties. The vendor or the lender acquires an immediate right to a return of goods or of money; the vendee or the borrower becomes subject to that claim, and is bound to discharge it. This being the case in all matters of contract, the mode of recovering property, so due, ought in all cases to be governed by the same principles. The essence of the contract arises from the nature of the property advanced, not from the situation of the borrower or of the lender. Whether a man be in trade or not, if he takes up goods or money, and neglects or refuses to pay for them, he is guilty of an offence; and, in the eye of reason and of justice, the offence is still the same, whether it be committed by a trader or by any other person. It therefore ought to be punished in the same manner, and the process in both cases ought to be the same. In all matters of a criminal nature, this rule is constantly observed. If a murder has been committed, or if a bank-note has been forged, no enquiry is ever made into the situation of the malefactor. The law looks no farther than to the crime itself; and the same process and the same punishment attend upon its commission. In all civil injuries, a similar rule is observed. It is never asked, what is the situation of a trespasser, or to what order of men belongs the breaker of a close? it is enough that the defendant has acted illegally; the law takes its course, and the same justice is done to all mankind.

To go still farther.—What is the process of the common law in all cases of failure to discharge these very conditions? Any man, of whatsoever station, is at liberty to pursue his debtor for a breach of contract. No enquiry is ever made into the circumstances of either party. An action of debt or of covenant may be brought equally by a trader, as by any other man; and whether the defendant is a trader or not, he is equally liable to the jurisdiction of the court, and to the operation of the law. What then is the principle on which
this

this process is grounded? not any partial distinction of rank or situation, but solely the consideration, that a contract, which ought to have been performed, has been broken.

‘We see then that, in all other cases, the rule which we have laid down is religiously adhered to. Why it was departed from in this single instance, can be accounted for only upon the ground at which we have already hinted. Partial inconveniencies having been experienced, the legislature applied a partial remedy. It appeared more easy to correct an immediate abuse, than to recur to that original principle, which, had it been properly enforced, would have prevented a renewal of the evil.’

The mode of reform suggested by our author is, to abolish the present body of commissioners of bankrupts, and to establish in their room a regular body of insolvency; to take the choice of assignees from the creditors, and to substitute three perpetual assignees for managing the affairs of insolvents. He proposes that the charges of commissioners, and the salaries of the officers, should be paid by a rate of five pound per cent. on the sum divided; and that in the same commissioners should also be vested the power of granting certificates, and of punishing fraudulent insolvents. It is farther proposed, that commissions of bankruptcy should be rendered attainable by persons of every denomination.

In examining these Considerations of Mr. Burges on the Law of Insolvency, we cannot hesitate to acknowledge that he appears to be actuated by the most genuine regard to the interests of humanity and political justice; though we entertain, at the same time, no small degree of doubt whether the modes of reform which he proposes would really answer the purpose intended. There is, in our opinion, little reason to expect more beneficial consequences from the diligence, integrity, and commercial knowledge of three perpetual assignees, than from the occasional appointment, according to the regulation now existing, of men chosen by the creditors, for conducting the business of commissions of bankruptcy. With respect to the plan of extending commissions of bankruptcy to every class of the community, it is founded upon a liberal idea of the universal right of men to a privilege of so much importance; but, until a better system of laws shall be established respecting cases of bankruptcy, there is cause to fear, lest the proposed extension of those commissions should greatly multiply the opportunities of fraud, which are at present so much the subject of complaint. That nothing calls more loudly for the attention of the legislature than a new act of insolvency, will, we believe, be readily admitted; but it is an object of such

magnitude as requires the maturest deliberation ; and for the purpose of removing a great political evil, a remedy of uncertain effect ought ever to be administered with the utmost caution.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

P O L I T I C A L.

Free and Candid Reflections, occasioned by the late additional Duties on Sugars and Rum. By John Gardner Kemeys, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

THE author of this pamphlet is a zealous advocate for the liberty of the colonies, which he considers as greatly injured by the restraining acts of the British legislature. He represents the additional duties on sugars and rum as particularly detrimental ; and insists that, if continued, they must in the end prove absolutely ruinous to our West India islands. The excising or taxing the produce of land, in the hands of the colonist, must ever, he affirms, tend directly to the discouragement of cultivation. ‘ There is, says he, but one question on this business. Who pays the imports ? The chancellor of the Exchequer, in 1781, said the consumer would pay them. He intended they should. I insist that the planters pay them ; that the consumers do not.’ The remedy proposed by this writer is, that the planter should be allowed to refine his own sugars ; that refined sugars be excised ; and raw sugars and rum be imported free from duties. By this means, he observes, the planters would be relieved from the burden of the present payments, which they are obliged to make immediately on entering their sugars (and rums at the out-ports) or from an interest charged for such advances made by their factors, as they would be transferred to the manufacturers or retailers, who can finally make the consumers repay them. If the planters should refine their sugars, the advantages would be increased in various ways. First, in lessening the expences of carriage from their plantations, Secondly, in the saving of cask, which is now always given to the buyer, but may then be either sold or returned. Thirdly, in preventing all the present enormous waste, pilfering, and errors, or *customary* allowances on the weights ; under which articles, he observes, great frauds are frequently committed.

In a postscript, the author recommends it to Great Britain, to grant to her colonies an exclusive right, as well to import the produce of their lands and their manufacture into her ports, free from levies upon importation ; to enjoy trade, under only the same restrictions with their fellow-subjects in Great Britain and Ire-

Ireland; as to exempt from all taxation, but what shall be made by *their representatives*, for their own use.

The Corn Distillery stated to the Consideration of the landed Interest of England. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

This author states, that the corn-distillery in England has, for a considerable number of years, been greatly on the decline; to the no small loss of the public, especially of the landed interest. He imputes the declension to various causes, but chiefly to the heavy imposts and duties on spirits made in England since the year 1778; the consequences of which are, that the manufacture at home is discouraged, and that spirits are smuggled from other nations. The permitting spirits to be made of melasses instead of corn, is another principal source of complaint, as tending essentially to diminish the cultivation of corn. The author, undoubtedly, places the subject of grievance in a clear light; but we wish that the commodity for which he argues, while profitable to the landed interest, and to numbers besides, were not injurious both to the health and morals of many thousands of the people. If spirits however must be consumed, the procuring them in the way most advantageous to the public, is certainly a proper object of political consideration.

Cicero and Cataline in Contrast. 8vo. 6d. Doddsley.

In exhibiting moral contrasts, it frequently happens that the features of the different objects are exaggerated; but provided that a general likeness be preserved, we are ready to make an allowance for those imperfections which naturally flow from the operation of partiality or prejudice. Whether this author has had an opportunity of viewing closely the characters of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Fox, we know not; but he delineates them with as much apparent confidence as if they had actually sat to him for their portraits.

A Letter from Common Sense. 8vo. 1s. Bew.

This Letter, addressed to the king and people, contains what the most ordinary understanding would suggest on the subject of the late divisions in parliament; respecting which, the writer dissents entirely from the coalition-party.

Letters on Credit. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

These Letters were originally printed in the news-papers; and are now, on account of their importance to commercial people, re-published in the present collection. Mr. Hope, the author, appears to have an extensive acquaintance with his subject; and has added to the Letters a Postscript, with a short account of the bank of Amsterdam.

A Letter to Sir Philip Jennings Clerke, Chairman of the Committee of the House of Commons, &c. 8vo. 3s. No Bookseller's Name.

This Letter relates to the claim, presented by Mr. Lacam, to the house of commons, for exploring a more safe and convenient track than the old channel, into the Bengal river. The author makes many shrewd remarks on the evidence of Mr. Lacam, in such a strain of pleasantry as, joined to the initials subscribed, would induce us to think it is the production of Mr. Joseph Price, who has repeatedly favoured the public with his sentiments on East-India affairs.

A full and authentic Account of the whole Proceedings in Westminster Hall, on Feb. 14, 1784. 8vo. Stockdale.

This narrative contains the speeches delivered in Westminster Hall, on the occasion of the meeting; a copy of the address presented to his majesty by sir Cecil Wray; and a pointed and seasonable address to the independent electors of the city of Westminster. To the pamphlet is prefixed a ludicrous representation of Mr. Fox, harranguing the dregs of the populace from a window in the King's Arms tavern.

An Abstract to all the Game-Laws. 8vo. 1s. Walker.

Besides the various Game-laws, this pamphlet contains abstracts of the following acts of parliament, viz. an act for granting to his majesty new stamp duties on bills of exchange, promissory and other notes, and also on receipts; the registry of burials, marriages, births, and christenings; an act for granting certain duties on waggons, carts, &c.—In an Appendix, there is likewise an account of all the stamps on vellum, parchment, &c. with a number of other articles of taxation.

An Abstract of an Act to explain and amend 'an Act for granting Stamp-duties on Bills of Exchange, Promissory and other Notes, and Receipts,' &c. 8vo. 6d. Walker.

To the above is added an abstract of the act relative to promissory or other notes, bills of exchange, &c. with the forms of notes, bills of exchange, and their indorsements. This, and the preceding pamphlet, are printed for the information of the public, by Mr. Wood, of Shrewsbury, who shews a laudable desire of rendering his countrymen acquainted with the several acts of parliament most necessary to be known in common life.

P O E T R Y.

A Rumble from Newport to Cowes, in the Isle of Wight. By William Sharp, junior. 4to. 2s. Johnson.

In this poetical itinerary we meet with little either interesting or picturesque. It is written in that familiar style which is com-

composed without much trouble, and read with little pleasure. The *Rumble*, as Mr. Sharp somewhat affectedly, though not altogether improperly, styles it, is in general extremely flat and insipid; and, what is worse, sometimes quite unintelligible. The depth of this gentleman's moral reflections, and clearness of his political speculations, will sufficiently appear from the following quotation, which we suppose will thoroughly satisfy our readers' curiosity.

' O passing fate of things below !
 No immortality they know :
 Change will on all her marks inscribe,
 Except the ministerial tribe,
 And their vile masters ; they ne'er range ;
 To pelf still true, they never change.
 Be curs'd their arts and selfish ends
 Who sink to foes and separate friends :
 Where are the flags that once display'd
 The blessings of a mutual trade :
 Where are the crowded wharfs which own'd
 America's chaste produce round :
 Discharg'd to give the state their pay,
 Before they shap'd a distant way.'

Essay on True Fashion ; or the Beauties natural to Man. By a Spectator. Elliot, Edinburgh.

This performance baffles the labours, and even conjectures, of criticism : it seems to have a meaning, but we have not sagacity sufficient thoroughly to comprehend it. We shall give the encomium on Independence, as a striking specimen of the inexplicable.

' All hail, bold Independence, which will shine,
 And give free manners with a grace divine :
 That plan of life which were the fools to crave,
 Each fool would languish to be still a slave ;
 Bring some true taste, and friends to grace the scene,
 And let the graces sprung from Nature reign ;
 No wants but luxuries, no idle ease,
 No toys nor manners from beyond the seas.
 Tho' without wealth, with heart and pow'r to give,
 And when we can't assist, advise to live.'

Here we find it clearly pointed out in the third and fourth lines, that if ' fools wished to be independent, they would desire to continue in slavery.' Whether any other observations, of equal profundity, lie couched in those that follow, we cannot take upon us to assert. If any of our readers are particularly partial to ænigmas, we recommend this little poem to their serious attention ; it will sufficiently exercise their ingenuity and penetration.

Sam.

Sam. House, and Sir Jeffery Dunstan. 6d. Egerton.

The personages who hold the conversation in this Westminster eclogue are Sam. House and Sir Jeffery Dunstan, the nickname, it seems, of a poor fellow who sells old wigs. The noted publican and the mock-knight are described as lamenting the downfall of Mr. Fox, in a parody of Theocritus and Virgil.

Fox's poisoned Bag, &c. 2s. 6d. Ridgway.

The *stink-bag*, as it has been called in the newspapers, is so offensive, that a poem on the subject might seem naturally destined to Cloacina; but in this jeu d'esprit, there is such a degree of merit, as may at least protract its voyage down the stream of oblivion.

The Rescue. 4to. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

This lady, whose Muse has been awakened by the appointment of the Portland administration, sings of nothing but praise and invective. She liberally bestows the former on Mr. Fox, Mr. Burke, &c. and the latter on their principal opponents. We are sorry that justice will not permit us to confer upon herself a sprig of the laurel with which she has adorned her political favourites: but we shall not employ against her any invective; though we must acknowledge that her versification is extremely capricious and irregular.

Poems on Miscellaneous Subjects. By Ann Curtis. 5s. Bowen.

Mrs. Curtis, dreading lest her poetical exertions should suffer from a comparison with the theatrical excellence of Mrs. Siddons, her sister, has had recourse to the patronage of the duchess of Devonshire. The apprehension discovered a diffidence, generally expressive, and, in the present case, not destitute, of merit; for the Poems, besides displaying an amiable sensibility of mind, are written in a strain alike unaffected and elegant.

Chatsworth; or the Genius of England's Prophecy. A Poem. By the Author of the Naval Triumph. 4to. 2s. Parker.

This performance is entitled to much approbation for its truly poetic spirit and harmony of numbers; but it is not free from faults; in some places the images are not justly conceived, and in others not clearly expressed. Of the latter, the passage in the third stanza, marked in Italics, is an instance.

'Ye dells, and woodland wilds, in song unknown,
Receive a wand'rer's tributary strains,
Here wont to muse; where Nature on her throne,
In awful, solitary grandeur reigns.

And

And ye sublime, sequest'ring mountains, hail,
 Whose hoary ridges waving pines adorn;
 Where roseate Health, that courts the vernal gale,
 Hears the shrill skylark wake the blushing morn.

Struck with th' inspiring scenes, your bard hath rung
 His sylvan shell, 'till *orient Suns have hurl'd*
Their latest beams, and Hesperus hath hung
 His diamond lustre o'er the peaceful world.'

We suppose the author means from morning till the approach of night; but the expression is obscure, and at the first view, an absolute contradiction. The reader of taste however will gladly excuse it, on account of the beautiful description that immediately follows. Again, in the third stanza of the following quotation, the image itself is confused.

' But chief amidst thy proudly-pendent groves,
 Majestic Chatworth! and thy fair domains,
 The Muse with loit'ring step delighted roves,
 Or thoughtful meditates her sylvan strains.

There, in receding Scorpio's tranquil hour,
 She loves sweet Autumn! in thy train to hear
 The redbreast, hid in golden foliage, pour
 Slow-warbl'd requiems o'er the parting year:

Or rapt in Fancy's bright, elysian dream,
 She wanders Derwent! where, with ling'ring pride,
 The amber-tressed *Naiads* of thy stream
 Through bending woods, and vales luxuriant *glide*;

The stream, not the Naiads, should have been represented as gliding through the woods and vallies. But we may again observe, that the prettiness, and we believe novelty, of the thought in the second stanza, more than compensates for the slight defect we have pointed out in the third.

The passages we have quoted, characterise the whole poem. Many trifling blemishes occur, but they are intermixed with superior beauties.

D R A M A T I C.

The Double Disguise, a comic Opera in Two Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal Drury-Lane. The Songs set to Music by Mr. Hooke. 8vo. 1s. Bell.

The plot of this little piece is not uncommon. The servant personates the master, whom he thought at a distance; and the latter, at the same time, engages the ladies affections, in the disguise of a steward. There is also no great novelty in the con-

conduct of the fable; and the difficulties are cleared up before we are interested in the fate of those who are designed to struggle with them. Yet the dialogue is lively and characteristic; and the songs humorous and musical. The innocent naivete of Rose, the Irish waiting-maid, would have pleased in more than two acts, and interested us in more complicated situations.

Selima and Azor, a Persian Tale, as performed at the Theatre Royal Drury-Lane. 8vo. 1s. Bell.

This little piece, with the assistance of the theatrical paraphernalia, has been well received on the stage; and, though like other productions of a trivial nature, it cannot claim applause, it is entitled to our indulgence.

N O V E L S.

Siberian Anecdotes. A Novel. In Three Volumes. Containing real Histories and living Characters. 12mo. 9s. Lowndes.

Among the various furniture of a circulating library, these little volumes were for some time overlooked; yet they ought to be mentioned with respect. There is a semblance of true history in some parts of them; and others are distinguished by a luxuriance of imagination, corrected by a knowledge of the country which is described, and of the manners of its inhabitants. The discovery of Siberia, by Yarmak the Cossack, is romantic and entertaining; perhaps not greatly inferior, in some passages, to De Solis' Conquest of Mexico, which, it must be owned, resembles an epic poem rather than a true history. Siberia was not really discovered by this adventurer, but by a Russian, early in the same century in which its conquest was completed by Yarmak; though this is a slight blemish in a performance, which chiefly professes to entertain. It also affords instruction; since the costume is preserved with more care than we commonly find in such works; and the whole breathes a spirit of philanthropy and benevolence, of pure morality and unaffected religion.

Mental Novellist and amusing Companion. A Collection of Histories, Essays, and Novels. With many other curious literary Productions of Alexander Kellie, Esq. 12mo. 3s. Lane.

This is our first acquaintance with Alexander Kellie, esq. in his own person. Many of these works we recollect in Magazines, and probably the whole may have appeared in detached forms. We cannot think that they merited the honour of a collection; though for the depraved appetite which requires novelty, and is contented with this quality alone, the present miscellany may afford a scanty and uncertain meal.

D I V I N I T Y.

Sacred History selected from the Scriptures, with Annotations and Reflections, suited to the Comprehension of Young Minds. By Mrs. Trimmer. Vol. IV. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Robinson.

This volume commences with the account of Ahab's death, 1 Kings, ch. xxii. The last transaction, mentioned in the canonical part of the Old Testament (except in some prophecies, which were afterwards fulfilled) is the reformation of the Jewish church and state, by Nehemiah, ch. xiii. which Usher places ant. Ch. 442 years. Before this period, our author gives the history in the words of the common translation of the Bible; and subjoins some moral and practical reflections. After the time of Nehemiah she selects her materials from the apocryphal writers, from Josephus, Prideaux, and others; and continues her narrative to the birth of Christ.

The benevolent and industrious author is now preparing for the press the History of the New Testament, with annotations.

Though this work is professedly intended for young people, it will be acceptable to many readers of riper years, as it includes a regular system of Jewish history, from the creation to the coming of the Messiah; extracted from the sacred writers and other unexceptionable sources of information.

A Key to the Three first Chapters of Genesis, opening to the most common Understanding the Production of the World, the Creation, Formation, and Fall of Man, and the Origin of Evil. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

The author of this publication has furnished us with a Key, which, he tells us, will unlock the Scripture. But when we apply it, as he directs, we find ourselves in a new scene, surrounded with chimeras.

Faith and Works. A Sermon preached at St. Luke's, Chelsea, Feb. 29, 1784. By Richard Sandilands. 8vo. 1s. Cadell.

This writer has made a laudable attempt to refute enthusiasm, and to reconcile St. Paul, who says, Rom. ch. iii. 28. that 'a man is justified by faith, without the deeds of the law;' and St. James, who asserts, ch. ii. 24, 'that by works a man is justified, and not by faith only.' St. Paul, says Mr. Sandilands 'was speaking to the unconverted and unbelieving Jews, who boasted of their great righteousness and justification, only through the ceremonial rites and observances of the Mosaic law, through which he affirms, v. 20, no flesh shall be justified. — They were evidently the works of the Jewish law which were decried by St. Paul, and not the works of faith.'

Our author will be pleased to observe, that the apostle is not speaking of the Jewish law, but of law in general; and asserting

ing that no flesh, that is, no part of mankind, could pretend to the favour of God, or a title to the blessings and privileges of the Gospel by works of LAW, ἐξ ἔργων νόμου. These privileges and honours were bestowed 'by grace,' out of the pure, unmerited bounty of God, without regard to the good or bad actions of mankind in their antecedent state. 'Not by works of righteousness, which we have done, but according to his mercy he SAVED us.' Tit. iii. 5. This salvation or justification, this acceptance into his kingdom and covenant under the Gospel, is obtained only by faith in Christ. On the other hand, St. James is not speaking of this first justification, but of the final salvation of mankind in a future state, when he says, a man is not saved or 'justified by faith alone without works.'

On this plan of interpretation, and this only, the words of the two apostles are rational and consistent.

CON T R O V E R S I A L.

A Letter to Dr. Priestley: occasioned by his History of the Corruptions of Christianity. By Edward Sheppard, A. B. 8vo, 1s. Mathews.

This writer attacks Dr. Priestley, we suppose, with a good intention, that is, out of a sincere regard for the honour and interest of Christianity; but he rails rather than reasons, 'ranking the doctor with infidels,' styling his tenets 'novel, false, unreasonable, unscriptural;' and his assertions 'wicked and blasphemous;' proceeding even to denounce damnation upon him: 'You sin, says he, against greater light than the Turk, and your doom will be heavier.' The gentleman is a strenuous Athanasian, boldly asserting, that 'if Christ was not God, he certainly was a blasphemer, a liar, and a deceiver, and suffered justly.'—As many pious and learned men have not been able to find any satisfactory proofs, in the New Testament, of our Saviour's coessentiality with the Father, it is an impious temerity to assert, that if Christ is not God, he must be a liar. Every wise and prudent man will propose his sentiments on the subject of the Trinity with diffidence and humility; and not hazard the sacred character of Jesus Christ on the truth of his own dogmatical opinion.

Apologia. Four Letters to a Minister of an independent Church: By a Minister of the Church of England. Small 8vo, 1s. 6d. sewed. Johnson.

The author of these Letters informs us, that his first religious connections were formed among the dissenters; but that he some years since received episcopal ordination, and is now exercising his ministry in the established church. In the first Letter he vindicates establishments and liturgies. In the three follow-

ing,

ing, he acquaints his friend with his reasons for conforming to the established church, and continuing in it.

My first and principal reason, he says, is, the regard I owe to the honour and authority of the Lord Jesus Christ, as head and lawgiver of his church. Though this consideration did not directly oblige me to unite with the establishment, it discouraged me from uniting with any of the parties, who pretended an exclusive right from him to enforce their own particular church forms. When conscience did not interfere, my second reason, though rather of a prudential kind, was of considerable weight with me. I loved liberty, and therefore gave a preference to the church of England, believing I might, in that situation, exercise my ministry with most freedom. I have made the experiment, and have no reason to repent of it. These points being cleared, my way was open to attend to another consideration, which had a farther influence in determining my mind, that is, the probability of greater usefulness. My fourth reason, superadded to those which I have already stated, greatly contributed to give full satisfaction to my mind: I mean the proofs I had that the Lord, by the openings and leadings of his providence, pointed out to me the situation in which I was to serve.

These are our author's ostensible reasons for steering, as he says, 'with wind and tide,' into the peaceful and commodious harbour of the church of England: and certainly they are the best of all possible motives.

M I S C E L L A N E O U S.

A Concise View of the Common and Statute Law of England.
4to. 15s. in Boards. Nicoll.

One of the numerous pieces of the reverend primate of catchpenny writers.

An Account of the Scots Society in Norwich. 8vo. 2s. Murray.

It appears that, for some years past, a Society has subsisted at Norwich, originally formed for the relief of indigent North Britons; but now, by the laudable benevolence of the promoters, extended to include all necessitous foreigners residing in England, who have not obtained parish settlements. The worthy founder and president of this Society is Dr. Murray, in whose addresses good sense and humanity are enforced with a natural eloquence, that is both pathetic and persuasive.

Observations on the Obœro, a Palm Tree. 8vo. 1s. Bigg.

We must still wait for the Observations of Mutis, before we can pretend to any knowledge of a tree, whose utility is as striking as its form; which unites dignity and majesty with the most extensive advantages. It affords food and drink; it is expanded into cloth, and into cotton; the unfolded leaves are useful, as a covering; and the younger ones are formed into a

flaxen

flaxen down. Palms, for other purposes, afford wax and oil; the leaf-stalks furnish a kind of basket; and the trunk of the tree hides the remnant of mortality, when the spark which animated it is fled. From the cradle to the grave, this singular kind of vegetable supplies the wants of those inhabitants, who feel not the burthen of artificial necessities, or the cravings of an appetite, depraved by luxury, and eager after novelty. The particular tree, which is the present object of our author, is distinguished by its leaf; it is neither palmated nor pinnated, like the leaves of the other palms, but large and round. It is probably the production of South America, as its name is derived from the language of a tribe of Indians, in the province of Guiana. The botanical description of this author is neither clear or satisfactory; and his other remarks are distinguished rather by a quaintness of expression than by its accuracy or its elegance. The description and the observations are taken from imperfect memoranda, and from recollection: the more perfect account was given to an honoured friend. Why it could not be recovered, or why these remarks, necessarily of inferior value, are substituted for them, we are not told. The best description of the fructification of monoicous palms is in the Supplement of the younger Linnæus, taken from the Letters of Mutis, who will probably soon afford us a more complete information.

The Law of Simony. By T. Cunningham, Esq. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinson.

Mr. Cunningham's publication contains all the statutes, cases, arguments, resolutions, and judgments, relating to Simony; particularly the cases and arguments at large, which were produced in the great cause determined in the house of peers, in May 1783, between the bishop of London, and Disney Fytche, esq.

This is the most copious and satisfactory treatise which has appeared upon the subject; and merits the attention of every one, who is or may be concerned in simoniacal contracts.

A Letter to her Grace the Duchess of Devonshire. 4to. 1s. Sewell.

The author of this Letter expostulates in a dispassionate and respectful, but free manner, with the duchess of Devonshire, for the extraordinary part which she has acted during the present contest in the city of Westminster; and he affirms that her grace will yet become sensible of the impropriety of her conduct. We are sorry when the behaviour of a lady of high rank is rendered the subject of public discussion, especially when strongly taxed with the charge of levity and incedecency. Of all passions, political enthusiasm seems the least compatible with the softness of the female character; and if ever the British fair interfere in the province of politics, we wish to see them actuated with the desire of moderating, rather than of promoting the contention of parties.

